



POST-WAR BRITAIN 1946

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This handbook is the first of a post-war series. It contains factual and statistical information which has been compiled from official and authoritative sources. It is not intended to be exhaustive.

The information, except where otherwise stated, is the most recent available at the time of going to press (1st August, 1946) ; a few additions, however, to cover important later developments were made when the proofs were read. In general, the contents refer to the United Kingdom as a whole, but where separate figures are available for England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, these have also been given when they are likely to be of general interest.

For additional information, readers are referred to the series of Basic Information Papers prepared by Reference Division and to the Monthly Digest of Statistics issued by the Central Statistical Office.

*Reference Division,
Central Office of Information,
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POST WAR BRITAIN - a selection of facts and figures

I. ADMINISTRATION

1. CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

(a) *Constitution*.—The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is a parliamentary democracy with a limited constitutional monarchy, cabinet government carried on in the name of the King, and a bicameral legislative assembly. Of the King's ancient powers little remains except "the right to be consulted, the right to encourage, the right to warn," and the extent to which these can be used depends, within very circumscribed limits, on the King's own personality and experience.

The Prime Minister and the Cabinet are at the head of the Executive, and the Government is normally formed of the majority party in the House of Commons, and resigns if it can no longer command the confidence of the House.

As the Constitution is unwritten and in a continual state of evolution, the division of constitutional functions is by no means rigid: most legislation is introduced by the Government, and Parliament can, and does, call upon Ministers to account for their actions under that legislation. Ministers may, especially in times of emergency, be given power to make Orders under special Acts, but are limited in their independence by the necessity of conforming to the Government's policy, and by parliamentary control of finances.

The *Ministers of the Crown (Transfer of Functions) Act*, 1946 (see p. 7) was designed to provide for still greater flexibility in the allocation of the statutory functions of Ministers and their departments. It is now possible for such functions to be transferred by Order in Council, or for a Department to be dissolved and its functions transferred to another Department.

Some changes have been made in the composition and functions of Departments since August 1945. The Ministries of Supply and Aircraft Production have been amalgamated, and the Ministry of Production has been merged with the Board of Trade. The Ministry of Information has been abolished, and its functions divided between the Departmental Information Divisions and the Central Office of Information, co-ordination being secured by committees on the ministerial and official level.

Departmental organisation is, on the whole, centralised in London, though certain departments, notably the Ministry of Food, the Board of Trade, the Ministry of National Insurance, and the Ministry of Labour, have Regional Offices.

Scotland.—The Office of Secretary of State for Scotland is discharged through four main administrative Departments—the Department of Agriculture for Scotland, the Scottish Education Department, the Department of Health for Scotland (including Town and Country Planning), and the Scottish Home Department—exercising functions broadly comparable with the functions exercised in England and Wales by the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Town and Country Planning, and the Home Office.

The Scottish Secretary also exercises through the Scottish Home Department certain functions in relation to the organisation of Courts of Law and judicial

appointments—in consultation with the Lord Advocate—as well as a general responsibility for the organisation of the Record Office and other Register House Departments, the National Galleries of Scotland, the National Library of Scotland, and the Edinburgh Observatory ; corresponding functions in England and Wales are shared between the Lord Chancellor, the Treasury, and the Admiralty.

On other matters there are Ministers whose statutory jurisdiction extends throughout Britain, e.g., President of the Board of Trade, Minister of Labour and National Service, Minister of Transport, Minister of Fuel and Power, and the Minister of National Insurance. The Scottish Secretary is, however, popularly regarded as " Scotland's Minister " and is expected to be the mouthpiece of Scottish opinion in the Cabinet and elsewhere in matters which are not strictly within the sphere of his statutory responsibilities. He may be appealed to on a variety of questions with a Scottish aspect, and in certain cases, e.g., in relation to the determination of development areas in Scotland, the Herring Industry Board, and the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board he shares responsibility with Ministers for Great Britain. The Ministerial responsibility for the Forestry Commission and the Crown Lands Commission, whose jurisdiction extends throughout Great Britain, is shared between the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Scottish Secretary.

Legislation in matters within the sphere of English Ministers in England and Wales and of the Scottish Secretary in Scotland is usually dealt with in separate Bills owing to the differences in the law and conditions in the two countries ; but sometimes a single Bill for Great Britain may be sponsored by the English Ministers and the Scottish Secretary. Legislation on matters within the sphere of Ministers for Great Britain is usually dealt with in Bills applying to Great Britain. Where a Bill applies to Great Britain it is necessary to translate for Scotland references to English law and conditions and this is done in a " Scottish application " clause.

Northern Ireland, while it is represented in the Parliament at Westminster by 13 members, has its own Parliament in Belfast. The *Senate* comprises the Lord Mayor of Belfast, the Mayor of Londonderry, and 24 senators elected by the members of the (Ulster) House of Commons, and the *House of Commons* of 52 members elected by the same electors and in the same manner as members returned by Northern Ireland constituencies to the United Kingdom Parliament. The Parliament has power generally to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Northern Ireland in relation to all matters except certain services reserved to the United Kingdom Parliament such as income tax, Post Office, Judiciary, Customs and Excise Duties, etc. All executive power in Northern Ireland is vested in the King, but is exercised by the Governor of Northern Ireland.

The services in Northern Ireland in connection with the lower Courts, police, prisons, civil defence, national fire service, elections and franchise are administered by the Ministry of Home Affairs for Northern Ireland in Belfast.

The Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland in Belfast exercises general and detailed supervision over all forms of education (other than university education) and superintends the working of the local education authorities.

The Ministry of Health and Local Government is responsible for housing, the public health services, etc. There are also the Ministries of Agriculture, Labour and National Insurance, Finance and Commerce.

(b) Parliament

Parties and Seats, 1st August 1946

<i>Government</i>		<i>Opposition</i>		<i>Other Parties</i>	
Labour ..	394	Conservative ..	190	Liberal ..	12
		Ulster Unionist ..	9	I.L.P. ..	3
		National ..	2	Communist ..	2
		Liberal National ..	13	Irish Nationalist ..	2
				Independent Labour	1
	394		214		20
		Independent ..		12	
		TOTAL ..		640	

Legislative Process.—Most Bills are nowadays sponsored by the Government and introduced in the House of Commons, although some non-controversial measures are first introduced in the House of Lords (in normal times there is also provision for private members' Bills when parliamentary time permits).

The title is read, the Bill is deemed to have been read the First Time, and is printed. On the Second Reading a policy debate takes place, and, if the Bill passes, any accompanying Financial Resolution is usually considered. The Bill is then committed either to one of five Standing Committees or, less often while existing pressure of legislation continues, to a Committee of the Whole House, which reports on its findings. The amendments made in Committee, if satisfactory, are passed, and the Bill is read a Third Time, and passed to the House of Lords, where it goes through a very similar process.

If the Commons cannot agree to the Lords' amendments, or vice versa, a Joint Committee may be appointed to settle the matter. The Lords have power to delay all Bills except Money Bills for two years, if they are unacceptable, though this power is seldom used.

The Bill must then go to the King to receive the Royal Assent, and becomes an Act.

Apart from its purely legislative function, Parliament also debates questions of past or future policy at home and abroad. The Government consults the Opposition about the business of Parliament and arrangements for debates, which may be "full-dress" debates on important questions, debates on various matters on days reserved for Committees of Supply (when the Opposition can choose the subject), or brief debates on matters which individual members consider important, which they raise on the motion for adjournment. A feature of Parliament is Question Time, when at the beginning of each day's sitting, individual members, or peers, may ask Ministers in their respective Houses questions on matters of general importance, or which concern individual cases or constituencies.

Legislation : 1945-6 Session.—During the 1945-6 Session of Parliament 96 Bills have been introduced, of which 84 had, by 6th November, become Acts. Among the most important are :—*

Supplies and Services (Transitional Powers) Act (20.8.45). 10.12.45.

Ministers of the Crown (Transfer of Functions) Act (18.12.45). 22.1.46.

(See p. 5.)

Ministerial Salaries Act (23.5.46). 6.6.46.

* Figures in parentheses show date on which Bill was presented to Parliament. Other figures show date of Royal Assent.

Superannuation Act (13.5.46). 26.7.46. (See p. 9.)
Bank of England Act (10.10.45). 14.2.46. (See p. 59.)
Coal Industry Nationalisation Act (19.12.45). 12.7.46. (See p. 85.)
Civil Aviation Act (2.4.46). 1.8.46. (See p. 23.)
Cable and Wireless Act (18.4.46). 6.11.46. (See p. 85.)
Atomic Energy Act (1.5.46). 6.11.46.
Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act (23.1.46). 12.7.46. (See p. 43.)
Finance (No. 1) Act (31.10.45). 20.12.45. (See p. 57.)
Finance (No. 2) Act (17.4.46). 1.8.46.
Dockworkers (Regulation of Employment) Act (11.10.45). 14.2.46.
Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act (23.1.46). 22.5.46. (See p. 49.)
Hill Farming Bill (18.2.46).
Agricultural Development (Ploughing-up of Land) Act (20.2.46). 6.3.46.
(See p. 64.)
Inshore Fishing Industry Act (23.8.45). 10.12.45. (See p. 70.)
National Insurance Act (20.12.45). 1.8.46. (See p. 122.)
National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act (23.8.45). 26.7.46. (See p. 125.)
National Health Service Act (19.3.46). 6.11.46. (See p. 79.)
Building Materials and Housing Act (14.11.45). 20.12.45. (See p. 83.)
Housing (Financial and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act (4.2.46). 18.4.46.
(See p. 82.)
Housing (Financial Provisions) (Scotland) Act (4.2.46). 6.6.46.
Education Act, 1946 (8.12.45). 22.5.46.
Trunk Roads Act (26.10.45). 6.3.46. (See p. 103.)
Acquisition of Land (Authorisation Procedure) Act (14.12.45). 18.4.46.
New Towns Act (17.4.46). 1.8.46. (See p. 98.)
Bretton Woods Agreement Act (7.12.45). 20.12.45.
United Nations Act (31.1.46). 15.4.46.

also a number of Bills concerning India and the Colonies.

Parliamentary Elections.—For parliamentary elections the country is divided geographically; there are county and borough divisions, and in Scotland a group of towns may form a Parliamentary Burgh, returning one member. Seats are distributed more or less according to population, approximately one seat to every 50,000, and some anachronisms were corrected by the *House of Commons (Distribution of Seats) Act, 1944*. Apart from these geographical divisions, 12 University members are elected by graduates of the various universities. In these, voting is by proportional representation (single transferable vote). With this exception the qualification is residential, and the candidate who gets the largest number of votes in a particular constituency is returned.

There is universal adult suffrage, the only exceptions (apart from Members of the House of Lords) being lunatics, and persons convicted of treason or felony.

The task of compiling the voters' register is laid on the Local Authorities, and is in the hands of the Clerks of County and Borough Councils, the elections being supervised by the Mayors and Sheriffs. Members of the Armed Forces and the Merchant Marine, and persons whose business necessitates their being elsewhere at the time of the election may vote by post, or by proxy, on the Absent Voters' List.

(c) **Civil Service.**—The Civil Service in Britain is recruited by competitive examination, for which purpose, and for departmental organisation and salary scales, it is divided into three main grades: Administrative, Executive, and Clerical. The first grade is recruited from university graduates, the second from those who have taken the Higher School Certificate, and the third from those aged 16–17 who have taken the School Certificate Examination.

Civil Servants are either Permanent (Established) or Temporary (Unestablished).

Permanent Civil Servants are not removable except on proof of gross incompetence, dishonesty, etc. They are pensionable and the retiring age is normally 60, with the possibility of extension to 65.

During the war, many new Departments were set up, and there has been a large-scale recruitment of Temporary Civil Servants. As a result, the total number of Civil Servants (including Post Office Staff, etc.) has increased from approximately 395,000 in 1939 to 695,000 (1st April 1946). The entrance examinations are for the time being replaced by reconstruction examinations for those under 30 designed to facilitate entrance into the permanent service for those who have been engaged on war-work, or in the Forces, and the *Superannuation Act* (see p. 8) makes provision for the establishment of a certain proportion from the Forces, as laid down in the White Paper of November 1944 (Cmd. 6567).

The task of examining and selecting candidates is, subject to Act of Parliament, the care of the Civil Service Commission. The Treasury controls departmental expenditure and acts as the "employer," making regulations for the discipline of the Service. Machinery for negotiations on conditions of service is provided by the Whitley Councils (which have official and staff sides), and by the various unions, notably the Civil Service Clerical Association, the Union of Post Office Workers, and the Society of Civil Servants, which, since the passing of the *Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act* (see p. 8), may be affiliated to the T.U.C.

2. LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Like almost every other British institution, local government in Britain is the result of lively and varied growth over a long period. It has, in the British way, always cared more for vitality than for mechanical regularity, and it is best considered, not merely as a piece of machinery, but as part of a living organism. Its function has been to give the citizen a chance of self-government at his own level, and at each stage of its history it has represented an intermediate stage in government between the central executive and himself.

(a) *The Structure of Local Government in England and Wales.*—There are seven types of local councils in England and Wales, the members of which are directly elected by the votes of the electors cast in local elections :—

- 62 County Councils.
- 83 County Borough Councils.
- 309 Borough Councils.
- 28 Metropolitan Borough Councils and 1 City of London Corporation.
- 572 Urban District Councils.
- 475 Rural District Councils.
- About 7,000 Parish Councils.

Each local authority derives its powers from Parliament, and generally speaking it is not answerable for its actions to any other authority (central or local) except to the Courts in the event of its decisions being challenged as *ultra vires*. The Ministry of Health is the central department most closely concerned with local government, but other departments (the Home Office, the Ministry of Education for example) are also in close touch with local authorities.

In the larger towns and cities outside London local government is in the hands of a single authority, the *County Borough Council*. County Boroughs are not normally below 50,000 in population and no new County Borough can be created with a population of less than 100,000 (*Local Government (Boundary Commission) Act, 1945*).

In the middle-sized and smaller towns the work is divided between the *County Council*, which looks after education, public assistance (at present), public libraries and some other services throughout the county, and the *Municipal Borough* or *Urban District Councils*, which are responsible for the rest of the work in their areas.

In the rural parts of the county the work is divided between the County Council, the *Rural District Councils*, and the *Councils (or Meetings) of Parishes*, into which the Rural Districts are further divided. The Parish Meeting—whether called to appoint the Parish Council or to take the place of a Parish Council in a small parish (under 300 population)—is an interesting piece of “direct democracy,” i.e., government by the assembled electors themselves.

London : London has always had special problems of its own and it has evolved its own unique form of local government. The *City Corporation*, which governs the historic square mile in the heart of the commercial City, is very ancient. On the other hand, the *London County Council (L.C.C.)* was only created in 1888, and the 28 *Metropolitan Boroughs* into which the County (outside the City) is now divided were incorporated as such in 1899. The L.C.C. deals with education, the larger housing schemes, and, at present, public assistance (social welfare) and the hospital services and some other public health matters, besides many other civic activities. The City Corporation and the Metropolitan Borough Councils administer, among other matters, local sanitation and sewerage, the removal of refuse, the provision of maternity and child welfare centres, libraries, baths and public wash-houses, street lighting, and markets.

The present distribution of the 124 seats on the London County Council is : Labour 90, Conservatives 30, Liberals 2, Communists 2.

Mayors, Aldermen and Councillors : The civic head of the City of London and 17 other cities in England and Wales is called the Lord Mayor. This is a title of special honour, like the status of City. Other Boroughs, including most cities, have Mayors. Lord Mayors and Mayors are elected annually by the Town Council and they preside over its meetings, but they do not exercise the executive powers which many Mayors and Burgomasters possess in other countries. They usually receive salaries, which are in effect allowances for entertainment expenses. A County Council, District Council or Parish Council is presided over by a Chairman elected annually.

In the County and Borough provision is also made for the Council to appoint Aldermen, to one-third the number of the Councillors. The Aldermen are usually men with long records of local public service. They are members of the Council and enjoy a longer term of office (six years) than the Councillors (three years). All service by Councillors and Aldermen is voluntary and unpaid, though County Councils pay expenses incurred by members who have to travel to council meetings and committees.

The Chairman of a County Council or of an Urban or Rural District Council is *ex officio* a Justice of the Peace for the county during his term of office. The Mayor of a Borough (County or Non-County) is *ex officio* a J.P. for his borough also.

A local Councillor must be a British subject of full age and also be a local government elector for the area or own land within the area, or during the whole of the twelve months preceding the day of election have resided in the area or, in the case of a Parish Council only, within three miles of it.

(b) *Local Elections*.—Local elections were held in November 1945, and March and April 1946, for the first time since the outbreak of war in 1939. Elections for the Borough Councils in England and Wales were held on 1st November 1945, and for Town Councils in Scotland on 6th November 1945. Local elections for County Councils in England and Wales took place in March 1946, and for District and Parish Councils in April 1946.

The *Local Government Act, 1933*, makes the following provisions, *inter alia*, relating to local elections. All Councillors are elected for periods of three years. County Councils, Metropolitan Borough Councils, some Urban and Rural District

Councils, and Parish Councils are elected every third year when all the Councillors retire together. Elections are held annually for other Borough Councils and for most Urban and Rural District Councils (i.e., unless the County Council, at the request of the District Council, has made an order for all the Councillors to retire together). One-third of the Councillors retire annually and are elected at each of these elections. Borough Council elections are held in November, other local elections in March or April.

Elections to all local councils other than Parish Councils are held according to principles followed in parliamentary elections since the passing of the *Ballot Act* of 1872. There is a secret ballot and each elector has the same number of votes as there are seats to be filled. The procedure to be followed at local elections is laid down in the *Local Government Act*, 1933. District Councillors are elected under district council election rules made by the Home Secretary. These are substantially similar to those contained in the Second Schedule to the 1933 Act, applicable to Borough and County Council elections. Before an election is held the candidates must be properly nominated by two local government electors; notice of poll is given by the Returning Officer, who must also publish the names, addresses and descriptions of all duly nominated candidates. Public meetings are held, election addresses are circulated, and canvassers call on the voters and ask their support for particular candidates.

The election of Parish Councillors usually takes place openly in the Parish Meeting, but a poll may always be demanded and in some parishes orders have been made by the County Council for the adoption of the system of nomination, followed by a poll, which is used for District Councils.

All persons over 21 years of age who are registered in the National Register as residing or who occupy property (as owner or tenant) in the area of a local authority for which an election is being held are entitled to be registered for the local government vote. (In addition, in Scotland, an owner who is not in occupation of property can claim the local government vote in respect of that property.)

(c) **The Work of the Councils.**—The work done by local authorities in Great Britain is very considerable, and the responsibility resting on the unpaid, democratically elected representatives who, as Councillors, give their services to its administration, correspondingly heavy. In terms of financial responsibility alone, for example, a total of £754·7 million was expended in 1941–2 by the Councils of England and Wales, of which £198·9 million was derived from local levies of rates on property (est. for 1944–5, £202 million), and £294·9 million from taxes in the form of Government grants. (Of these the most important—the General Exchequer Grant—is applied generally in aid of the local authority's expenditure, while others, e.g., the grant made by the Ministry of Education, are applied towards the expenses of a particular service. Large revenues are also derived from *ad hoc* charges for services, e.g., electricity charges, etc.) Over one-third of the revenue is derived from grants, over one-third from specific revenues to the local authorities, and under one-third from rates.

Local authorities are responsible for the local administration of certain national services for which Parliament has defined a national minimum standard; such services are the police (outside London), public health, including hospitals and maternity and child welfare, education, housing and public assistance (the relief of destitution). (Hospitals and public assistance are to become national responsibilities.) Local authorities also provide purely local services such as museums, libraries, markets, fire brigades (nationalised during the war*), street cleansing and refuse disposal, drainage and sanitation, and, in some cases, public

* The National Fire Service was formed in 1941, combining all local fire brigades. Legislation is to be introduced to transfer the service to the control of the councils of counties and county boroughs in England and Wales, and of counties and large burghs in Scotland. A measure of central direction and control will be retained.

utilities such as water, gas, electricity and transport. Since 1938 local authorities have been responsible for organising and administering civil defence in their areas.

In many of these fields local authorities have permissive powers that are exercised variously in different areas.

The work of the local authorities in its main spheres is recorded in other sections of this book (*see* Police, Education, Health, Housing).

In public utilities approximately four-fifths of all water undertakings are owned by local authorities, acting singly or in combination. Local authorities control about one-third of the gas industry. Twenty-one local authorities operate all four of the water, gas, electricity, and transport services in their respective areas.

(d) Local Government in Scotland and Northern Ireland

Scotland: The Councils.—Scotland is divided for administrative purposes into counties, burghs and districts which are administered respectively by County, Town, and District Councils (*Local Government (Scotland) Act, 1929*). There are 33 counties, 195 burghs—including 24 large burghs, of which four are counties of cities, and 171 small burghs—and 199 districts. A district is made up of one or more electoral divisions of a county.

The four *counties of cities* are independent units for the purpose of all local government functions including education. The *other large burghs* are independent units for all purposes except education and in some cases police, the functions of education authority, and, where necessary, police authority, being carried out by the county. *Small burghs* are within the county not only for education and police but also for such purposes as public assistance, major health services (maternity services and child welfare, infectious diseases including tuberculosis and venereal disease, hospitals, food and drugs), town planning and classified roads, but the town councils administer such functions as minor health services (general sanitation, the regulation of the erection and construction of buildings), unclassified roads and streets, housing, water, drainage, public parks, public libraries, weights and measures. *District Councils* are charged with functions relating to recreation grounds, rights of way and allotments. *County Councils* have power to delegate certain functions to the Town Councils of small burghs, to District Councils, and to joint committees of such Town and District Councils.

The Secretary of State for Scotland is the central authority for local government in the country, and the chief Government Departments concerned are the Scottish Home Department, the Scottish Education Department and the Department of Health for Scotland, which are under his control. They have their headquarters in Edinburgh.

Conveners, Provosts, Chairmen and Bailies: A County Council is presided over by the *convener* of the county, a Town Council by a *provost* or *lord provost*, and a District Council by its *chairman*. The convener of a County and the chairman of a District Council are appointed annually, but a provost or lord provost holds office for three years. A Town Council appoints from among its members a number of *bailies* who hold office so long as they remain councillors; these with the provost or lord provost are the magistrates of the burgh.

Councillors: A person is qualified for election as member of a local authority if he is a local government elector for the area or any part of the area of the authority or if he has, during the whole of the twelve months preceding the day on which he is nominated, resided in the area of the authority. For this purpose the area of a County Council includes any burgh within the county.

Elections: County and District Councils are elected triennially in December; all the members retire at the end of the three-year term. One-third of the members of a Town Council retire each year and the vacancies are filled by election in November, or, in the case of certain fishing burghs, on a date between November and February.

County councillors for the landward area are elected by the local government electors in the electoral divisions. (The term "landward" applies to that part of a county which is not contained in any burgh.) County Councils also include representatives of all the burghs which are within the county for any purposes, i.e., of the large and small burghs except the four counties of cities. These burghal county councillors are elected not directly by the electors but by the Town Council of the burgh in question. Members of Town Councils are elected by the local government electors in the burgh or a ward thereof. Members of District Councils (other than the county councillors for the district who are members *ex officio* of the district council) are elected by the local government electors in an electoral division (or ward thereof) of the landward area of the county.

Northern Ireland : The pattern of local government in Northern Ireland is similar to that in England and Wales.

Councils : There are six County Councils in Northern Ireland, two County Borough Councils (Belfast and Londonderry), five Borough Councils, 28 Urban District Councils, and 32 Rural District Councils.

3. LAW AND ORDER

(a) **The Administration of Justice.**—Speaking generally, the law in England and Wales is administered by Justices of the Peace and Stipendiary Magistrates in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction and in Quarter Sessions, by the County Court Judges in the County Courts, and by the Judges, Lords Justices and Lords of Appeal in the Supreme Court of Judicature, the House of Lords and the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council.

Courts of Summary Jurisdiction

Petty Sessional Divisional Courts : In these courts, of which there are over 1,000 in all in the English and Welsh counties and boroughs, justice is administered by magistrates, who may be either (1) the unpaid Justices of the Peace (mainly laymen) appointed by the Lord Chancellor (in Lancashire, by the Chancellor of the Duchy) on the recommendation of his local advisers in each area ; (2) Justices (also unpaid) *ex officio*, who by statute or otherwise are magistrates by virtue of the holding of some other office or appointment, e.g., Privy Councillors, Mayors of Boroughs, Chairmen of County and District Councils—and (3) Metropolitan Police Magistrates in London, and Stipendiaries in some 17 of the larger cities in England and Wales, who are appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Home Secretary. Unlike the lay, unpaid Justices of the Peace, the Stipendiary Magistrates must be legally qualified and must devote their whole time to their duties, for which they receive remuneration out of public funds. The Justices sitting in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction exercise extensive criminal and civil jurisdiction. They must receive information and complaints, issue warrants or summonses and generally do all necessary acts and matters preliminary to the hearing both in criminal and in civil business. Their powers in criminal cases are to hear, try, determine and adjudge matters which may be dealt with summarily, and, in indictable matters not triable summarily (the graver crimes and misdemeanours), to decide whether the accused person should be committed for trial. Over 99 per cent of all criminal business in England and Wales is dealt with in these Courts. The Justices also deal with a large and varied field of quasi-criminal and civil business, and they exercise many administrative functions in connection with, for example, Licensing, etc., and the witnessing of statutory declarations and other documents.

While a single ordinary Justice of the Peace sitting by himself may deal with certain matters and determine certain cases, his powers are very limited and as a rule the presence of at least two ordinary justices is necessary for the proper constitution of a Court of Summary Jurisdiction. A Metropolitan Police Magistrate, a Stipendiary Magistrate and (in the City of London) the Lord Mayor

or an Alderman sitting alone, may exercise all the powers which ordinarily require the presence of more than one justice.

The penalties which Courts of Summary Jurisdiction are empowered to impose are laid down in the various statutes dealing with the offences. Broadly speaking, the maximum penalty is a fine of £50 or six months' imprisonment, or both. When the conviction is before one (lay) justice or two such justices in an occasional Court, the sum adjudged to be paid must not exceed £20—and the imprisonment must not exceed 14 days.

Quarter Sessions : There are in all 64 Courts of Quarter Sessions in the counties of England and Wales. These Courts are attended by the Justices of the County concerned and are presided over in practically all cases by Chairmen or Deputy Chairmen who are "legally qualified" within the meaning of the *Administration of Justice (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 1938*. In every case in which the Chairman or Deputy Chairman of the Court is "legally qualified" the Sessions can exercise the extended jurisdiction as provided in the Act ; i.e., they can deal with certain specified offences of a grave character, with which the Justices in Petty Sessions are not competent to deal and which otherwise would have to be sent for trial to the Assizes, or, in London, to the Central Criminal Court. In a trial at Quarter Sessions the facts are determined by a jury as in a trial at, for example, the Assizes. The Courts of Quarter Sessions also hear appeals from Petty Sessional Courts and deal with Rating Appeals. Inclusive of Lancashire there are 257 boroughs with separate Commissions of the Peace, and of these 116 boroughs have their own separate Courts of Quarter Sessions. These Courts are presided over by the Recorder, who is appointed by the Crown on the recommendation of the Home Secretary. The Recorder is the sole judge of the Court of Quarter Sessions in a Borough. The position of the City of London is exceptional. The Lord Mayor, Aldermen and Recorder of the City of London have Quarter Sessions jurisdiction in a "Court of the Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London."

In a borough with a population of over 50,000, the Recorder has the "extended jurisdiction" under the Act of 1938 and, *inter alia*, the Recorder of any Borough with a Court of Quarter Sessions hears appeals from the Petty Sessional Court of the Borough.

The County Courts possess civil jurisdiction only, and their jurisdiction is limited by the pecuniary value of the property in dispute, e.g., land and buildings having an annual value not exceeding £100, debts and damages not exceeding £200, trust property, etc., not exceeding £500. They have been given special jurisdiction under various Acts of Parliament, e.g., the Workmen's Compensation Acts, the Bankruptcy Acts, the Rent Restrictions Acts, the Adoption of Children Acts. A considerable part of their business is concerned with the enforcement of the payment of simple contract debts, e.g., for goods supplied.

The County Court is a purely statutory court—dependent for its existence and jurisdiction on Act of Parliament. The whole of England and Wales is divided into County Court districts and there is at least one Court for each district. There are 459 County Courts, presided over by 58 Judges, who are appointed by the Lord Chancellor from barristers of at least seven years' standing. Small cases in the County Court are often tried by the Registrar—a subordinate judicial officer. *The Supreme Court of Judicature* : This consists of the High Court of Justice and the Court of Appeal. It is superior to the other Courts mentioned above and inferior only to the House of Lords.

The High Court of Justice consists of the Judges of the King's Bench Division (presided over by the Lord Chief Justice), of the Chancery Division and of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division. All the Judges of the High Court have equal authority and jurisdiction, but for convenience special classes of business are taken only in each Division. Thus the King's Bench Judges try the more

important criminal cases—in London at the Old Bailey, and in the Provinces when they travel to various towns to hold Assizes. They also deal with a large class of civil business, e.g., actions for debt or damages which are outside the pecuniary limits of the County Court, disputes about liability to income tax, and the heavier commercial cases, etc. The Chancery Judges are concerned mainly with matters arising out of the administration of wills and trusts, charities, partnerships, and the care of the property and persons of minors. The Judges of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division deal with disputes arising over the proof of wills, with matrimonial business (e.g., divorce and nullity of marriage), and with collisions at sea and other maritime affairs.

The Judges of the High Court (styled “Mr. Justice So-and-so”) are the descendants of the old King’s Judges, who since the time of Henry II have sat in London and up and down the country to dispense justice to the King’s subjects. Their number is now limited by statute to 32, and a minimum number has always to be assigned to each Division (17 to the King’s Bench, five to the Chancery, three to the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty). The actual number assigned at any time to a Division depends, in practice, on the state of business in the Division, e.g., there are at present eight Judges of the Probate, Divorce and Admiralty Division.

The Court of Appeal : This Court hears appeals from the Judges of the High Court in civil cases, and also from the County Court. The Court is presided over by the Master of the Rolls, assisted by eight Lords Justices of Appeal. The Court usually sits in three divisions, each consisting of three Lords Justices.

The Court of Criminal Appeal : This Court, which is presided over by the Lord Chief Justice, and consists in addition of eight Judges of the King’s Bench Division, hears appeals from the King’s Bench Judges or from Quarter Sessions in the more serious criminal cases. An appeal lies to the Court of Criminal Appeal on questions of law, and, with leave, on questions of fact or against the sentence which has been passed on the accused.

An appeal from the Court of Criminal Appeal lies to the House of Lords only if the Attorney-General (or in his absence the Solicitor-General) gives his certificate that a point of law of exceptional public importance is involved and that it is desirable in the public interest that an appeal to the House of Lords should be brought. An appeal to the Lords from the Court of Criminal Appeal is a comparative rarity.

The House of Lords is the supreme judicial authority for England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland. The jurisdiction is exercisable in theory by the whole House, but it is unconstitutional for any Peer to sit judicially except the Lord Chancellor (who presides), ex-Lord Chancellors, Lords of Appeal in Ordinary (law lords who are life Peers), and Peers who have held high judicial office. The Court usually consists of five Peers.

The jurisdiction of the House of Lords extends to criminal and civil appeals—the bulk of its work consisting of appeals in civil cases from the Court of Appeal in England and Northern Ireland and the Court of Session in Scotland.

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council exercises on behalf of the Crown jurisdiction to hear appeals from the Dominions, India, the Colonies and from Ecclesiastical Courts in England and Wales. It also hears appeals from the Admiralty Judge of the High Court sitting in Prize. It consists of the Lord Chancellor, ex-Lord Chancellors, the Law Lords, and Privy Councillors who have held high judicial office in the United Kingdom, the Dominions, India, or the Colonies. Its judgment is given by way of a single opinion, advising the Crown to dismiss or allow the appeal.

(b) *Police*.—*General* : There are at present 159 separate police forces in England and Wales. The Metropolitan police force is by far the largest. The City of

London has a separate force, and each county and most of the larger boroughs have their own forces. The number of provincial forces will be reduced as from 1st April 1947, under the terms of the *Police Act, 1946*. The general effect will then be that each county and each county borough will have a separate police force.

The Home Secretary is the police authority for the Metropolitan police force. The other forces are under local control—in boroughs, the police authority is the Watch Committee of the borough council, and in counties the police authority is the Standing Joint Committee (half the members being county councillors and half being Justices of the Peace). All forces other than the Metropolitan force are, however, subject to inspection by H.M. Inspectors of Constabulary, and receive a Government grant of 50 per cent of their approved police expenditure, the remaining 50 per cent being met from local rates. Similarly, approximately 50 per cent of the cost of the Metropolitan force is met from the Exchequer. All forces are subject to Regulations made by the Home Secretary as to pay, discipline and other conditions of service, and there is a right of appeal in serious disciplinary cases to the Home Secretary against the decision of the disciplinary authority of the force.

Strength : The total establishment of the regular police service in England and Wales is about 64,000 (May 1946). This total is made up of approximately 19,300 in the Metropolitan force ; 1,200 in the City of London force ; 21,500 in the borough forces ; and 22,500 in the county forces. In addition, there are 74,000 Special Constables. They are unpaid and are liable for part-time duty.

Women Police are employed, in small numbers, in most forces. They are attested constables. Their conditions of service are in essentials the same as those of the men. In May 1946 there were in England and Wales 673 regular policewomen.

Specialist Organisations : All but the smallest forces have their own Criminal Investigation Departments, of which the Metropolitan Criminal Investigation Department is the best known. The Metropolitan force has the responsibility of keeping central criminal records and a central fingerprint collection.

All forces can make use of the services of the Forensic Science Laboratories, which are stationed in London, Birmingham, Bristol, Cardiff, Nottingham, Preston, and Wakefield.

Some forces already have adequate wireless facilities and plans are in hand to provide facilities for every force. Each force now has its own separate Traffic Department for dealing with road traffic problems and methods of accident prevention.

Scotland : In Scotland all the police forces are subject to regulations made by the Secretary of State for Scotland as to pay, discipline and other administrative matters. The county police come under the County Councils and under the Town Councils in the burghs. In May 1946 the total police strength in Scotland numbered 7,329.

Northern Ireland : The Royal Ulster Constabulary, constituted on 1st June 1922, under the *Constabulary Act (Northern Ireland)* of that year, was recruited from disbanded members of the Royal Irish Constabulary, serving members of the Special Constabulary, and from civilian sources.

Rates of pay, allowances and pensions are prescribed by the Minister of Home Affairs for Northern Ireland.

The present strength of the Force is approximately 2,800 men and 13 women.

(c) *Treatment of Offenders*.—The lawbreaker in Great Britain can be dealt with in a number of ways. Punishments may take the form of orders for restitution, fines, corporal punishment, imprisonment or, in the case of murder and high treason alone, in practice, death. Under the *Probation of Offenders Act* the Court may discharge the prisoner altogether, "bind him over" to be of good behaviour

for a period not exceeding three years or make a probation order requiring him to fulfil certain conditions under the supervision of a Probation Officer. Probation Officers deal both with children and adults except in London where there are from 60 to 70 Officers responsible for adults alone.

Principles : The governing principles of the contemporary prison system are based on the Report of the Departmental Committee on Prisons of 1895. This Committee condemned the harsh system of the day and recommended that "prison treatment should be effectually designed to . . . awaken the higher susceptibilities of prisoners and turn them out of prison better men and women than when they came in." As a result the present regime is based largely on the assumption that the deterrent influence of imprisonment lies in shame and loss of liberty, and that the direction of the institutional regime should be towards constructive training.

Administration : The responsibility for the administration of the 34 prisons and 11 Borstal Institutions lies with the *Secretary of State for the Home Department*. The prison systems for Scotland and Northern Ireland are separately administered through the Home Departments in Edinburgh and Belfast.

Prisons and Borstal Institutions are administered and inspected by the *Prison Commissioners* who are responsible to the Secretary of State, and are permanent Civil Servants, appointed by the Crown. Since 1930 the Commission has consisted of the Chairman and two others, one of whom is the Medical Commissioner. There are six Assistant Commissioners all of whom are permanent Civil Servants and one of whom is a woman.

Visiting Committees and Boards of Visitors form independent, judicial, voluntary bodies to whom any prisoner may take a request or complaint and who act as superior disciplinary authorities for the prisons to which they are attached.

Governors are appointed by the Secretary of State and are permanent Civil Servants. The Prison Commissioners appoint the *Housemasters* who are chiefly in charge of houses in Borstal Institutions, the *Chaplains*, the *Medical Officers*, and also the subordinate staff, known as *Prison Officers*. The Prison Officers form a disciplined highly trained body of about 3,000 men and 150 women.

Classification of Prisoners : The daily average prison population (men and women) has been over 16,000 during 1946.

Prisoners of every type go first to a local prison and, unless removed to a special institution, serve their sentences there. Into the *Young Prisoners' Class* are placed all prisoners under 21 and, where possible, they are kept separate from other offenders. Those with longer sentences are sent to *Young Prisoners' Centres* where special facilities are provided for training.

The *Prison Act of 1877* defines the treatment suitable for *Unconvicted Prisoners*, i.e., prisoners on remand or awaiting trial, as "as little as possible oppressive, due regard only being had to their safe-custody, to the necessity of preserving order and good government. . . ."

The *Star Class* includes every prisoner who has not been convicted of previous crime and is not of criminal or depraved habits, whether he is sentenced to hard labour or not. To these prisoners, who are kept separate from others, are given the most interesting types of work, with the object of providing them with the maximum training and every opportunity of cultivating a sense of responsibility. At Wakefield Prison, a special training prison where these principles are in operation, of 4,553 prisoners of the Star Class discharged between 1932 and 1939 only 733 have been reconvicted.

Certain prisons are set aside for *Penal Servitude Prisoners*, known as *Convicts*. The maximum sentence of imprisonment is two years and therefore any longer sentence must be one of three years or more penal servitude. Convicts may qualify for release on a conditional licence when two-thirds of their sentence has expired. A sentence of *Preventive Detention*, of not less than five or more than 10 years,

may, in certain circumstances, be passed upon a person found to be an habitual criminal, that is, a person guilty of crime, with three previous criminal convictions and leading a consistently criminal or dishonest life. Prisoners condemned to death are segregated and given special treatment.

Prison Routine : (i) Employment : It is one of the first principles of the prison system that prisoners should be fully employed. In 1933 a Departmental Committee reported on the employment of prisoners, and as a result of their report a Director of Industries was appointed with a staff of supervisors and managers, workshops were extended, modernised and equipped with up-to-date machinery. The upkeep of the prison itself provides work for a number of prisoners in domestic service, the gardens, in chopping wood and making mattresses.

A great variety of trades is carried on and much prison equipment and clothing are made by the prisoners themselves. Farming, land reclamation and stockraising are undertaken at certain institutions.

In order to supply incentive an Earnings Scheme has been instituted in all prisons.

(ii) Remission of Sentence : In the years preceding the war a local prisoner could earn remission of a sixth of his sentence, and a convict, in practice, of a quarter ; but, during the war years, in order to reduce the prison population, a reduction of one-third of sentence was made possible for all.

(iii) The Stage System : Under this system the prisoner becomes entitled to new privileges as successive periods of his sentence are satisfactorily completed.

(iv) Moral Welfare : Chaplains of the Church of England, Roman Catholic priests, and Methodists are appointed for every prison and, wherever possible, any prisoner can receive the ministrations of a minister of his own denomination however small a one it may be.

(v) Education : An Adult Education Scheme for prisons was instituted in 1923. It was in operation at all prisons before the war but largely lapsed owing to shortage of teachers, during the war years. The Scheme is supplemented by periodical lectures, debates, and concerts of good music, and by libraries at all prisons.

(vi) Prison Visitors : In 1939 over 700 men and women were visiting prisoners, providing them with a contact with the outside world.

(vii) Health : Large prisons have one or more resident Medical Officers ; at small prisons a local practitioner attends daily. The nurses in men's prisons are Male Hospital Officers ; in women's prisons and in Borstals for girls and boys they are State Registered Nurses.

(viii) Provision for Abnormal Mental States : Prisoners already sentenced who are found to be insane are certified at the prison and removed to the State Mental Hospital or, in some instances, to a local mental hospital. Prisoners who are found to be mentally defective are certified at the prison and are removed to appropriate institutions. Medical Officers are given guidance as to the type of case likely to benefit by psychological treatment.

(ix) Aid on Discharge : Attached to every prison is a Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society which helps the prisoner to find employment and to adapt himself to society. Convicts are cared for by the Central Association for the Aid of Discharged Convicts, and female convicts by the Aylesbury After-Care Association. The management of the individual Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society is voluntary and local, and the work is dependent primarily on benevolent subscriptions, assisted by a Government grant. The work is co-ordinated and encouraged by the National Association of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies. 66.5 per cent of the convicts discharged in 1940 were leading successful lives in December 1942, when a review was made.

Borstal Training : The Borstal system was set up by the *Prevention of Crime Act*, 1908, to provide training for young offenders between 16 and 23, guilty of serious offences, whose imprisonment is undesirable but for whom a period of training

appears to be essential to prevent their turning into rebels against society. The object of the system is the development of character and of ability whether moral, mental, physical or vocational. A sense of responsibility is inculcated through a degree of trust which increases as the young offender progresses.

There are at present 11 Borstal Institutions for the training of youths and three for girls. After sentence a youth or girl goes to a Borstal Reception Centre, where they are studied for some weeks by a skilled staff of psychiatrists and others; finally an Allocation Board decides on the appropriate institution as the Borstals vary in character; three are open camps where the maximum trust is placed in the lads. The basic training is the same in all institutions—a hard day's work on the land, in the household or in the workshop; regular physical training; evening classes in educational subjects, handicrafts or gymnastics and adequate leisure for recreation.

On release young men are placed under the care of the Borstal Association, and young women the Aylesbury After-Care Association.

In 1941, 1,521 youths and 218 girls were sentenced to Borstal detention. It is estimated that, out of every ten youths discharged, some seven or eight settle down and give no further trouble. The figures for girls are similar though slightly less favourable.

(d) *Juvenile Delinquency.*—Many of the war-time problems which are always a cause of juvenile delinquency have not yet been completely solved in the difficult early days of peace and reconstruction. During 1945 the number of children and young persons found guilty of all types of offence in Courts of Summary Jurisdiction in England and Wales was 72,940. In Scotland the comparable figure was 15,920.

In addition to the psychological causes operative in the individual case, there are many causes for the increase in juvenile delinquency, such as the loosening of family control due to the absence of fathers and elder brothers and sisters in the Forces, together with the fact that mothers were often at work in the factory and were thus not able to give the same care and attention to their children; the interruption of school life arising from evacuation and bombing throughout the period of the war; the new temptations to be faced by boys and girls going out to work in a market where the demand for labour was far in excess of the supply and the consequent possession of weekly wages greatly in excess of the average of peace time. Added to all these causes must be the effect on young people of the excitement and general unsettlement of war.

Under the *Children and Young Persons Act, 1933*, children and young persons who have committed offences or who are in need of care or protection are brought before a juvenile court. The London Panel of Justices for the Metropolitan Juvenile Courts is selected by the Secretary of State, who also appoints the chairmen. Outside London the justices appoint from among their number justices specially qualified for dealing with juvenile cases to form a Juvenile Court Panel and from among these justices they select one to act as chairman. A juvenile court must be constituted of not more than three justices from the panel, and must include one man and, so far as practicable, one woman, and must sit either in a different building or room from that in which sittings of courts other than juvenile courts are held, or on different days from those on which sittings of such other Courts are held.

The *Children and Young Persons Act, 1933* (Section 44) provides that every court in dealing with a child or young person who is brought before it, either as being in need of care or protection or as an offender or otherwise, shall have regard to the welfare of the child or young person and shall in a proper case take steps for removing him from undesirable surroundings, and for securing that proper provision is made for his education and training.

The court may, if it considers it desirable in the interests of the child, send him

to a remand home so that inquiries can be made into his home circumstances, medical history, and also so that the child may be kept under observation. There are various methods of treatment open to the court. It may put an offender on probation with or without a condition of residence; commit him to an approved school or to the care of the local authority with a view to his being placed with foster parents; impose a fine, order the payment of damages or costs by the offender, or, in suitable circumstances, his parents. The court may also make an order for punitive detention in a remand home for a period up to 28 days, but this is a form of treatment not very frequently used. In spite of the difficult conditions since 1939 the number of remand homes has almost doubled: there are now 57 for boys, 7 mixed, and 15 for girls, and a further 12 are in preparation. Sixty new approved schools have been added to the 80 in existence before the war. In 1939 some 500 whole-time and 550 part-time Probation Officers were employed in England and Wales. The comparable figures for June 1946 are nearly 750 whole-time and 300 part-time officers. It must be remembered that the Probation Officer deals with adults as well as juveniles.

In Scotland comparable figures for Remand Home accommodation are 17 and 20, and for Approved Schools 23 and 26. There were 62 Probation Officers before the war, and there are now 73.

Other measures taken to combat juvenile delinquency include the provision of Child Guidance Clinics and Play Centres, the development of Youth Service Organisations and Youth Clubs, and increased recreational facilities. (For Child Guidance Clinics see *Education* Section 2 (d) and for Youth Service see *Youth*.)

II. BROADCASTING

Broadcasting in Great Britain is solely in the hands of the British Broadcasting Corporation, and the following is an account of its structure, of its adaptation to peace-time conditions and of its future policy.

BRITISH BROADCASTING CORPORATION

1. CONSTITUTION

The B.B.C. is a public corporation, created in 1926 by Royal Charter (renewed in 1946 till the end of 1951) and controlled by a Board of Governors. It is neither a Government Department nor a commercial company, nor does it work for profit. It maintains broadcasting stations under licence from the Postmaster-General, with whom it has also an Agreement containing certain general provisions as to the way in which the broadcasting service shall be carried out. While an ultimate control is maintained by Parliament and the Government for the nation, the B.B.C. enjoys wide independence both in constitution and practice.

2. FINANCE

Owners of wireless sets (registered blind persons excepted) pay an annual licence fee of one pound, which is collected by the Post Office. Until the outbreak of war an agreed percentage of this revenue was paid to the B.B.C. to maintain its services. In war time the B.B.C. was financed out of a Grant-in-Aid by Parliament, the income from licence-fees being quite inadequate to support the vast overseas services which have been in operation since 1939. The pre-war method of financing the home services of the corporation will be restored at the end of 1946 and the corporation will receive from licence revenue an income fully adequate for the efficient

maintenance and development of those services, to the extent of the whole of the net licence revenue if necessary.

3. POLICY

Sir William Haley, addressing the Sixth Imperial Press Conference in July 1946, said of the B.B.C. that "its duty is to survey the whole field that broadcasting can possibly cover, to apply broadcasting for the benefit of all classes of the community, to disseminate culture, information and entertainment over the full range of their repertory . . . to serve the minorities as well as the majorities among the people. . . . Our responsibility to the community is . . . to satisfy current demand and to lead in raising standards of appreciation so that what is demanded is progressively better."

The Future.—A White Paper on Broadcasting Policy (His Majesty's Stationery Office, Cmd. 6852, July 1946) dealing with the future of the B.B.C. announces that the Government has come to the conclusion that to span the period of transition and to enable new technical developments to reach a point at which their bearing on future broadcasting in this country can be more clearly foreseen, the charter and the licence should be renewed, with certain alterations, for five years, from 1st January 1947. The Government proposes to consider well in advance of the expiry of this period the desirability of appointing an independent committee to advise on future broadcasting policy.

It has been argued that the existing system places too much power in the hands of a single corporation, and deprives broadcasting of the advantages of healthy competition.

The Government is, however, satisfied that the present system is best suited to the circumstances of the United Kingdom. Where only a limited number of suitable wavelengths is available to cover a comparatively small and densely populated area, an integrated broadcasting system operated by a public corporation is, in its opinion, the only satisfactory means of ensuring that the wavelengths available are used in the best interests of the community, and that, as far as possible, every listener has a properly balanced choice of programmes. Co-ordination and the planned application of resources, rather than their dissipation, are, moreover, likely to lead to the greatest advances both in technique and programmes.

To encourage the spirit of competition in broadcasting the corporation is enhancing the status of its individual regional organisations and fostering a spirit of emulation throughout the service.

The Government has considered the use by the corporation of commercially sponsored programmes, and does not consider that there is a case for any change in the present policy of prohibition.

4. SERVICES

From War to Peace.—Within eighty-two days of the surrender of the German armies, a new Light Programme was introduced and the six Regional variations to the Home Service restored. A Third Programme came into operation on 29th September 1946. There is in being the only public television service in the world operating on every day of the week. Other post-war developments are the Forces Educational Broadcasts, a steady output of 18 broadcasts a week; the beginning of an establishment of a corps of B.B.C. foreign correspondents; the broadcasting of the United Nations Assembly and the Security Council; the inauguration of a nightly report on Parliament; and, as communications open up again, the exchange of programmes with other countries.

The Light Programme.—The Light Programme sets out to give British listeners a continuous service of information and entertainment, contrasting with the various Home Services and with the Third Programme that began in September

1946. As a second programme for listeners in the United Kingdom, the Light Programme succeeds the General Forces Programme, which itself succeeded the original Forces Programme.

News Services.—When the new programme organisation for Home listeners came into force the needs of the Home Service and the Light Programme were met by increasing the number of daily news broadcasts to eleven, including a three-minute summary at 11 p.m. News is presented objectively and all editorial opinion is avoided.

The Overseas Services.—During the recent year, 1945–6, the B.B.C. has distinguished “The European Services” from the “Overseas Services”—the Overseas Services being all those services in English and other languages directed to lands beyond Europe. In a sense the Overseas Services have grown from the original Empire Service, while broadcasting to Europe was created more particularly by the needs of recent years. In 1945 the first Commonwealth Broadcasting Conference was held. Programme, administrative and engineering problems were all discussed, and arrangements made for the interchange and secondment of broadcasting staff within the Commonwealth.

The European Services.—As Europe was liberated the facilities used by the European Governments to broadcast to their countries reverted to the B.B.C. Broadcasts are now going out in 24 European languages, one more than during the war, for a total transmission time of more than 28 hours daily. The European network of simultaneous transmissions has been increased from three to four.

While maintaining a regular service of news bulletins to Europe the B.B.C. projects the British way of life and the British viewpoint by commentaries on Parliamentary debates, reviews of the Press, and talks by political and other representatives of British opinion and outlook. The policy is to broadcast the truth in the interest of international understanding.

General Forces Programme.—To-day the main aim of the G.F.P. is to be found in South-East Asia Command, India, Middle East, Central Mediterranean, and East and West Africa Commands. It has become the most comprehensively rebroadcast service in world radio—apart from British Forces stations, its news bulletins are relayed by no fewer than 70 overseas broadcasting organisations. The G.F.P. will probably settle down as a world-wide service in English for British listeners, whether service or civilian.

Television.—In September 1943 the Government appointed a Committee to prepare plans for the reinstatement and development of the television service, which had closed down on the outbreak of war, in the post-war period. The Committee presented its report on 29th December 1944; the Government indicated agreement with its main recommendations on 9th October 1945, and preparations were begun at once for the resumption of the service which took place on 6th June 1946.

The range of service is a radius of about 40 miles from Alexandra Palace, the site of the London television transmitter. Four hundred and five lines, fifty frames interlaced, give twenty-five complete picture frames per second.

Addressing the Sixth Imperial Press Conference in London in July 1946, Sir William Haley, Director-General of the B.B.C., said that television “is an integral part of broadcasting and not an art separate from it. We intend to press on, as fast as physical resources allow, with the task of making it available to as many homes and over as widespread an area of the Kingdom as we possibly can.”

An additional licence fee of £1 a year is charged for television sets.

The Monitoring Service.—The B.B.C. Monitoring Service listens to, and reports on, broadcasts from foreign countries, with the object of providing Government Departments and the B.B.C. with a comprehensive service of news and intelligence—from both immediate and long-term points of view—drawn from all broadcasts

audible in this country. It has been necessary to provide for the new requirements of various Government Departments, notably the Foreign Office, while a considerable volume of specialised material selected from European broadcasts is supplied to U.N.R.R.A.

School Broadcasts.—The number of schools registered as listening to school broadcasts at the end of the Summer Term, 1946, was 12,511. (See p. 38.)

Engineering School.—A companion to the B.B.C. school which keeps members of the staff up to date in programme and administrative technique has been set up in the form of an engineering school. The school is open to professional broadcasters from all over the world.

Research.—A major programme of post-war broadcasting research on every subject from frequency modulation to television has been undertaken.

III. CIVIL AVIATION

1. ORGANISATION AND SERVICES

Great changes are taking place in Civil Aviation, and the future will be governed by the provisions of the *Civil Aviation Act* of 1st August 1946. The purpose of the Act is to give effect to the policy outlined in the White Paper, British Air Services, Cmd. 6712, published in December 1945. Its two main objects are to provide for the development of air transport services by three corporations operating under public control, and to secure the provision of aerodromes for such services.

The British Overseas Airways Corporation, under the Chairmanship of Lord Knollys, will be responsible for the Empire and North Atlantic routes and projected trans-Pacific services; British South American Airways, chairman Mr. J. Booth, will operate the service to various South American countries; and British European Airways, chairman Sir Harold Hartley, will conduct the short-range services to and from the Continent of Europe and the services within the British Isles. These three Corporations will have the exclusive privilege of operating scheduled air transport services within the United Kingdom and to and from the United Kingdom. The only scheduled services to be excepted are those operated in accordance with intergovernmental agreements by undertakings whose principal places of business are outside the United Kingdom.

(a) *British Overseas Airways Corporation*

The main B.O.A.C. "Speedbird" routes are:

1. **United Kingdom—New York**, with Constellations, opened with twice-weekly service on 1st July 1946, but temporarily suspended on 11th July, resumed on 31st August and services increased to 4 a week.
2. **United Kingdom—Australia**, with landplanes (Lancastrians, 3 a week) and flying-boats (Hythes, 3 a week), operated in parallel partnership with Qantas Empire Airways of Australia.
3. **United Kingdom—India**, with Yorks to Calcutta (now 4 a week, planned to rise to 9 a week by the end of the year) and later on with Halifax Haltons to Karachi (up to 7 a week); the Hythe flying-boats on the Far East routes also serve India (5 a week).
4. **United Kingdom—South Africa**, in partnership with South African Airways, with Yorks to Johannesburg (4 a week in October, to be increased to a daily service as soon as aircraft are available).

5. United Kingdom—West Africa, with Dakotas to Lagos and Accra (3 a week) to be supplanted during the autumn by Haltons, which will operate direct across the Sahara from Algiers to Lagos.

6. United Kingdom—Cairo, with Yorks (2 a week), Dakotas (3 a week), and Haltons (7 a week), which will later run through to Karachi.

7. United Kingdom—Far East, opened in August with a first stage to Hong Kong (with Hythe flying-boats once a week), later to be extended to Shanghai and Tokyo.

In addition the North Atlantic Route will be duplicated later on by a direct United Kingdom—Canada service with Tudor Is. The R.A.F. Return Ferry Service of Liberators between Prestwick and Montreal, operated since 1941 by B.O.A.C., came to an end on 23rd October 1946.

Further, a variety of Middle East services based on Cairo is operated by B.O.A.C., as well as a through service to Palestine and the Lebanon (Lydda and Beirut) from the United Kingdom, and services connecting Middle East with India, East Africa and West Africa. Local services are also operated (or are beginning operation) in West Africa and in the Burma—Malaya—Hong Kong triangle. A shuttle service between Baltimore and Bermuda is maintained (3 a week) by the Boeing flying-boats which from 1941 to 1945 operated the B.O.A.C. transatlantic service between Poole and Baltimore.

(b) British South American Airways Corporation

Proving flights of B.S.A.A.C.'s service to South America were made in November 1945, and on 1st January 1946 the inaugural flight was made. By September 1946 B.S.A.A.C. were operating four services a week to and from South America. Lancastrian and York aircraft are employed on this service and take the following route :

London Airport—Lisbon—Bathurst—Natal—Rio de Janeiro—Montevideo—Uruguay—Buenos Aires, Argentine—Santiago, Chile.

B.S.A.A.C. opened in September 1946 a fortnightly service from London Airport to Bermuda, Jamaica and Caracas in Venezuela. Survey flights were made over this route in July 1946.

The Corporation look forward to operating Tudor aircraft on both routes early in 1947.

(c) British European Airways Corporation

British European Airways Corporation, which will be responsible for all internal airline services and for all British air services to the Continent, has its headquarters at Bourne School, Northolt. The Corporation will operate through three divisions. The Continental Division, also located at Northolt, will, as the name implies, control services to the Continent ; internal services in England and Wales will be operated by the English Division at Speke ; and a separate Scottish Division and also a Scottish Advisory Committee are being created with headquarters at Glasgow to look after Scottish interests and to operate Scotland's services, and also those from Scotland to other parts of the U.K. and the Continent.

As with all airline operations at the present time, the limiting factors in the expansion of B.E.A. operations are shortages of suitable aircraft and of fully trained airline crews. For example, so far as internal services are concerned, planning for the immediate future must be based largely on the use of D.H. Rapides and Avro XIXs. A few Ju. 52s are also likely to see service on some of B.E.A.'s internal routes for a short while until such time as new types of passenger aircraft become available to the Corporation in quantity, and until converted Dakotas can be released from the Continental routes.

At the present time, these converted Dakotas are relied upon to maintain the Continental schedules, but in September the first of B.E.A.'s Vickers Vikings—officially designated "V-class" aircraft—was introduced on certain Continental

services and early next year some 35 "V-class" aircraft should be available for operation on the main B.E.A. European routes. These new aircraft will ensure vastly improved schedules from the point of view of frequency, comfort, speed and cost; in fact, by the beginning of 1947 the total number of schedules operating on B.E.A.'s European routes should have reached some 100 per week.

In the meantime B.E.A.C.'s *Continental services* on 20th September 1946 were as follows:

London—Bordeaux—Lisbon	5 weekly
London—Bordeaux—Madrid	1 weekly
London—Bordeaux—Madrid—Gibraltar	2 weekly
London—Gothenburg—Stockholm—Helsinki	4 weekly Stockholm 1 weekly Helsinki
London—Frankfurt-on-Main—Vienna	3 weekly
London—Zurich	9 weekly
London—Marseilles—Rome—Athens—Istanbul— Ankara	1 weekly
London—Marseilles—Milan—Rome—Athens	4 weekly Rome 2 weekly Athens
London—Brussels	12 weekly (not Sundays)
London—Paris	21 weekly
London—Prague	3 weekly
London—Hamburg—Berlin	4 weekly

Internal (U.K.) Air Routes

Internal air services to London and other principal cities, notably Birmingham, Bradford, Bristol, Cardiff, Edinburgh, Exeter, Inverness, Leeds, Manchester, Newcastle, Plymouth, and Swansea are part of the schedule being planned by the British European Airways Corporation; some of the services are already in operation. There will also be cross-country air services between a number of provincial centres, and services catering for Scottish air traffic, and the South Coast, Wales and the West of England, and the North East and the North West, including the Isle of Man.

The proposed schedule of internal air routes includes a number of seasonal services, mainly to augment those already operating or to be run as regular services, from London and other centres to the Isle of Wight, the Channel Isles and the Isle of Man. Internal services connecting with Prestwick, to meet the needs of transatlantic traffic using that airport, will also be developed.

2. THE LONDON AIRPORT

When the London Airport, which was officially opened to international air traffic on 31st May 1946, is completed, it will be the main trans-oceanic civil airport in Great Britain.

3. RECORDS

The air speed record was broken in October 1945 by Group Captain H. J. Wilson using a Gloster Meteor IV with Rolls-Royce Derwent jet propulsion engine. The lap speeds were 604, 608, 602 and 611 m.p.h.; this last figure was the highest speed ever recorded at sea level. A new attempt was made on the world air speed record by the R.A.F. in September 1946, an average of 616 m.p.h. being reached.

In January 1946 the R.A.F. Lancaster "Aries" set up a new record by reaching the Cape, from Britain, in 32 hours 21 minutes. The Aries also created another record by flying non-stop from Cairo to the Cape in 20 hours 37 minutes.

In February 1946 a Hythe class flying-boat reached Australia from Britain in 119 hours, actual flying time 69 hours.

In April 1946 Starlight, the British South American Airways air liner, reached Buenos Aires from London in the record time of 36 hours; actual flying time 31 hours 55 minutes.

In May 1945 B.O.A.C. in conjunction with Qantas Empire Airways, B.O.A.C.'s Australian associate, established the longest and fastest air route in the world, the famous 12,000 miles, 63 hours, thrice-weekly Lancastrian service from Hurn (Hants) to Sydney, Australia.

The first commercial non-stop flight from New York to London Airport was made in June 1946 by the British Overseas Airways Corporation Constellation aircraft "Balmoral" in the record time of 11 hours 24 minutes. It was the first B.O.A.C. air liner to fly from New York to London, and the average ground speed was 310 m.p.h. It flew at an average height of 21,000 feet.

An Avro York plane of British South American Airways made the first non-stop flight by a commercial aeroplane between North America and the new London Airport at Heathrow in June 1946. From the Newfoundland airport to London it took 10 hours 35 minutes.

During July 1946 high-altitude tests in a standard Gloster Meteor IV took place; Squadron Leader P. Stanbury, D.F.C., reached 46,500 feet—nearly nine miles.

In August 1946 the R.A.F. Lancaster "Aries" set up three international point-to-point records: London to Karachi in 19 hours 14 minutes; London to Darwin, 45 hours 35 minutes; and London to Wellington, 59 hours 50 minutes.

4. THE COLLEGE OF AERONAUTICS

This college was established by the Government as an Empire centre for the training at post-graduate level of men destined to take leading positions in the aircraft industry, the research establishments, the services, and in education. It was opened on 15th October at the R.A.F. station at Cranfield, near Bedford, a few miles from the site of the new Government research establishment at Thurleigh.

There are three main departments, dealing respectively with aerodynamics, aircraft design, and aircraft propulsion, together with a flight section. The principal, Mr. E. F. Relf, C.B.E., F.R.S., F.R.Ae.S., was appointed on 6th November 1945.

It has been decided to adopt a special organisation in the department of aircraft production to keep the department in close touch with the development of aircraft power units, following the introduction of jet propulsion and rocket propulsion in industry and elsewhere. For the present the chair will be left vacant.

About 50 students were accepted for the two-year course which began in the autumn. Control of the College is vested in a board of governors appointed by the Minister of Education.

5. AIRCRAFT

The following is a list of British civil aircraft at present in production and those likely to be in production before the end of 1947:

A. TYPES OF CIVIL AIRCRAFT AT PRESENT IN PRODUCTION

<i>Name</i>	<i>Maker</i>	<i>Description</i>
1. Tudor I ..	A. V. Roe ..	Range 4,200 miles. Accommodation for 24 day or 12 night passengers.
2. Tudor II ..	A. V. Roe ..	Range approx. 2,500 miles. Accommodation for 40 day or 20 night passengers.
3. Solent ..	Short Bros. ..	Flying boat. Range approx. 2,500 miles. Civil version of R.A.F. Seaford. Accommodation for 24 passengers and 8,500 lb. freight.
4. Lancastrian III	A. V. Roe ..	Range approx. 2,760 miles. Accommodation for 13 day passengers or 6 night.
5. York ..	A. V. Roe ..	Range approx. 3,000 miles. Accommodation varies from 12 to 24 passengers plus freight.
6. Halton ..	Short and Harland ..	Range approx. 2,400 miles. Accommodation for 10 day passengers and freight up to 6,600 lb. Conversion of Halifax bomber.
7. Sandringham	Short and Harland ..	Conversion of R.A.F. Sunderland V. flying-boat. Range approx. 2,500 miles. Accommodation for up to 45 day passengers.
8. Wayfarer ..	Bristol Aeroplane Co.	Passenger or freight aircraft. Range approx. 1,000 miles. Accommodation for 34 day passengers.
9. Freighter ..	Bristol Aeroplane Co.	Range approx. 1,000 miles. Load 3½-4 tons.
10. Viking ..	Vickers Armstrongs	Range approx. 1,000 miles. Accommodation for 21-27 day passengers.
11. Junkers 52 ..	Short and Harland ..	Range about 1,050 miles. Conversion. Accommodation for 12' passengers and stewardess.
12. Avro XIX ..	A. V. Roe ..	Range 600 miles. Accommodation 6-9 day passengers.
13. Dove ..	De Havilland ..	Range approx. 500 miles. Accommodation for 8-10 passengers.
14. Consul ..	Airspeed ..	Conversion of Oxford. Range approx. 980 miles. Accommodation for 5 passengers.
15. Rapide (Dominie)	De Havilland ..	Range over 900 miles. Accommodation for 5 passengers.
16. Aerovan ..	Miles Aircraft ..	Range approx. 450 miles. Payload 2,000 lb. (freighter) or accommodation for 10 passengers.

<i>Name</i>	<i>Maker</i>	<i>Description</i>
17. Proctor ..	Percival Aircraft ..	Range approx. 600 miles. Accommodation for 4 passengers.
18. Gemini ..	Miles Aircraft ..	Range approx. 500 miles. Seats 4-5.
19. Messenger ..	Miles Aircraft ..	Range approx. 450 miles. Accommodation for 4 passengers.
20. Auster ..	Auster Aircraft ..	(a) Range 200 miles. 2-seater type.
	Auster Aircraft ..	(b) Range 220 miles. 3-seater type (Autocrat).

B. TYPES OF CIVIL AIRCRAFT TO BE IN PRODUCTION BEFORE THE END OF 1947

Brabazon I* ..	Bristol Aeroplane Co. ..	Range 5,000 miles. Accommodation for 72 night passengers.
Hermes ..	Handley Page ..	Range approx. 2,500 miles. Accommodation for 34 to 40 passengers.
Ambassador ..	Airspeed ..	Range approx. 1,000 miles. Accommodation for 24 to 39 day passengers.
Marathon ..	Miles Aircraft ..	Range approx. 750 miles. Accommodation for 14 day passengers.
Concordia ..	Cunliffe Owen ..	Range approx. 1,000 miles. Accommodation for 10 passengers.
Merganser ..	Percival Aircraft ..	Range approx. 800 miles. Payload 1,150 lb. (including 5 passengers).
Aerocar ..	Portsmouth Aviation ..	(a) Range 650 miles. Accommodation for 6 passengers.
	Portsmouth Aviation ..	(b) Range 830 miles. Accommodation for 5 passengers.
	Portsmouth Aviation ..	(c) Range 770 miles. Accommodation for 6 passengers.
Ace ..	Chrislea Aircraft ..	Range approx. 400 miles. 4-seater.

IV. DEFENCE

1. GENERAL ORGANISATION

The Higher Defence Organisation of Great Britain is still under review.† As one of the five permanent members of the Security Council of the United Nations Organisation a special responsibility rests upon the United Kingdom in the maintenance of international peace and security. Under Article 43 of the United Nations Charter His Majesty's Government will be called upon to provide forces, facilities and assistance that will be at the call of the Security Council and they will be required to be at a prescribed state of readiness and in certain general locations.

* In this case no actual production deliveries are expected before the end of 1947, but considerable progress should have been made by then in flight trials of the first prototype, and work on the production aircraft should be well in hand.

NOTE.—All ranges quoted are still air ranges, with no other allowances. All figures are necessarily approximate and are liable to vary with development.

† A White Paper on the Central Organisation for Defence (Cmd. 6923, October 1946) was published on 7th October. The form of the new organisation proposed may be summarised as follows:

(a) The Prime Minister will retain the supreme responsibility for defence.

(b) The Defence Committee, under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister, will take over the

It is impossible, at the moment, to state the extent of these requirements and the reorganisation that will be necessary in the Higher Defence Organisation of Great Britain and the Dominions.

Meanwhile the central machinery that was adopted for the prosecution of the war is still in existence. The assumption by Mr. Churchill of the new office of Minister of Defence in addition to that of Prime Minister and the operation of Joint Staffs in an expanding field of activity were the principal features of the Higher Defence Organisation during the war. The ultimate responsibility for the conduct of the war rested with the War Cabinet, the Chiefs of Staff being their principal advisers. The position of the three Chiefs of Staff working together as advisers on questions of sea, land or air policy was first established in 1923. They were then made responsible to their own Board or Council having individual and collective responsibility for advising on Defence Policy as a whole. This Joint Staff has since been progressively reorganised and expanded in the light of war and post-war experience. At their service for information are the three Departmental Staffs of the Navy, Army and Air Force. The Joint Planning Staff, the Joint Intelligence Sub-Committee worked together and were responsible to the Joint Chiefs of Staff Committee. Responsibility for the policy and administration of the three Services rests with the Admiralty, War Office and Air Ministry under the First Lord of the Admiralty and the Secretaries of State for War and Air, who are in turn responsible to Parliament.

Collaboration with the Service chiefs of the Dominions and India was, throughout the war, comprehensive, continuous and effective. The long-accepted principle whereby His Majesty's Forces throughout the Empire have been trained, organised and equipped on the same basis proved its value in the wholehearted co-operation which took place in all theatres of war between the armies, navies and air forces of the Commonwealth. The opportunity was taken of the visits of the Prime Ministers of the Dominions to Great Britain in May 1946 to review the machinery of Imperial Defence in the light of the changed conditions of the post-war world and steps were taken to ensure the continuance of the collaboration that had been proved of such worth throughout the war. Specific and detailed examination of the problems of Empire defence were undertaken. An informal conference on defence science was held and recommendations for the effective collaboration of Commonwealth countries in scientific research, large-scale defence investigations and future exchange of information were made.

General officers of the British Army and those of equivalent rank in the Royal Air Force now attend twice yearly conferences that are held by the Chief of the Imperial General Staff and the Chief of Air Staff respectively. At these conferences plans for the training, disposition and equipment of their regular, territorial and auxiliary formations are expounded. Military and Air commanders from overseas

functions of the old Committee of Imperial Defence and will be responsible to the Cabinet both for the review of current strategy and for co-ordinating departmental action in preparation for war.

- (c) A new post of Minister of Defence, with a Ministry, will be created. The Minister of Defence will be responsible to Parliament for certain subjects affecting the three Services and their supply. In addition, he will be Deputy Chairman of the Defence Committee; and he will also preside over meetings with the Chiefs of Staff whenever he or they may so desire.
- (d) The Chiefs of Staff Committee will remain responsible for preparing strategic appreciations and military plans, and for submitting them to the Defence Committee; and the Joint Staff system will be retained and developed under their direction.
- (e) The Service Ministers will continue to be responsible to Parliament for the administration of their Services in accordance with the general policy approved by the Cabinet and within the resources allotted to them.

Plans and preparations for Colonial Defence fall within the general scope of the defence measures for which the United Kingdom Government is primarily responsible. It is proposed to revive the Overseas Defence Committee as a sub-committee of the Defence Committee in London.

The White Paper also deals with the organisation of collective defence within the Commonwealth and proposes a system of liaison officers which would result in regional study of defence problems for the purpose of co-ordination.

are able to work out their application to special conditions in different parts of the world.

2. STRENGTH OF THE ARMED FORCES OF THE CROWN

On 31st August 1939 the strength of the *Armed Forces* of the United Kingdom (Royal Navy, Army, and Royal Air Force) was 681,000 men. Including reservists mobilised, a further 5,215,000 men were taken into the Services between 31st August 1939 and 30th June 1945, making a total of 5,896,000 who served in the Armed Forces during the war. Of this total 923,000 served in the Royal Navy, 3,788,000 in the Army, and 1,185,000 in the Royal Air Force.

The strength of the *Women's Auxiliary Forces* (Women's Royal Naval Service, Auxiliary Territorial Service, Women's Auxiliary Air Force, and the Nursing Services) at the beginning of the war was 21,000. Between 31st August 1939 and 30th June 1945, 619,000 women entered the Women's Auxiliary Services, so that a total of 640,000 women served during the war. Of this total 86,000 served in the Women's Royal Naval Service, 307,000 in the Auxiliary Territorial Service, 219,000 in the Women's Auxiliary Air Force, and 28,000 in the Nursing Services.

The *Peak Mobilisation of the Armed Forces and Auxiliary and other Services* was reached in June 1944, when the liberation of Europe began. Numbers serving at that date were :

MEN			WOMEN		
<i>Armed Forces</i>		<i>Thousands</i>	<i>Women's Auxiliary Services</i>		<i>Thousands</i>
Royal Navy	..	790	W.R.N.S.	..	74
Army	..	2,742	A.T.S.	..	199
Royal Air Force	..	1,012	W.A.A.F.	..	174
			Nursing Services	..	19
Total	..	4,544	Total	..	466
<i>Other Services</i>			<i>Other Services</i>		
<i>Whole-time</i>			<i>Whole-time</i>		
Civil Defence	..	231	Civil Defence	..	58
Merchant Navy	..	180	Royal Observer Corps	..	3
Royal Observer Corps	..	6			
Total	..	417	Total	..	61
<i>Part-time</i>			<i>Part-time</i>		
Civil Defence	..	1,253	Civil Defence	..	358
Royal Observer Corps	..	22	Royal Observer Corps	..	2
Home Guard	..	1,727	Home Guard	..	31
Total	..	3,002	Total	..	391

The total strength of the *Armed Forces* only reached its peak of 4,683,000 in June 1945 (Royal Navy 789,000 ; Army 2,931,000 ; R.A.F. 963,000). Of this total strength 666,000 were engaged in the war against Japan in South-East Asia and the Far East, and 4,017,000 were serving in other overseas theatres and at home. For details of casualties, see VI. 2 (a) Table on p. 44 below.

The *Demobilisation* scheme prepared by the Coalition Government based on age and length of service was adhered to, but, where possible, the rate of release was

speeded up. In October 1945 a target was set for the demobilisation of 1½ million men and women by 31st December 1945. At that time the assessment made of the size of the Armed Forces for June 1946 was 2,233,000 men and women.

On 22nd February 1946 His Majesty's Government announced their Defence Policy for 1946 in a White Paper entitled "*Statement Relating to Defence*" (Cmd. 6743). This set out the service commitments as follows :

- (1) The occupation of Germany and Japan ;
- (2) The occupation of Austria ;
- (3) Provision of our share of forces to maintain law and order in Venezia Giulia ;
- (4) Provision of forces to assist the Greek nation in its recovery ;
- (5) Provision of forces to enable His Majesty's Government to carry out its responsibilities in Palestine ;
- (6) The liquidation of the Japanese occupation of South-East Asia ;
- (7) The maintenance of internal security throughout the Empire ;
- (8) The safeguarding of Empire communications and the upkeep of our bases.

The total strength of trained men in the three Services which these commitments required was estimated at 1,900,000 for June 1946, this figure to be reduced to 1,100,000 by the end of December 1946. A proportionate decrease in industry producing supplies and equipment for the forces was planned.

To maintain the forces at the above strength, and at the same time rapidly and effectively to demobilise those men and women who had served throughout the war in accordance with the Government Demobilisation Scheme, an *Inter-Service Recruiting Campaign* was opened on 17th May 1946 by the Prime Minister as Minister of Defence. He announced that it is hoped that by the end of 1946, as a result of this Recruiting Campaign for voluntary normal regular service and special short service, the Royal Navy will have increased by 50,000, the Army by 100,000, and the Royal Air Force by 100,000.

This campaign for voluntary enlistment in the forces will supplement the intake of men into the Armed Forces as provided by the normal call-up to the forces : details of this were made known by Mr. Isaacs, the Minister of Labour and National Service, on 30th May 1946. (Cmd. 6831.) The main details are as follows :

From 1st January 1947 the *Call Up for the Forces* will be confined to men liable under the National Service Acts who were born in or after 1929 and to those born in 1927-8 who will be in the process of being called up in December 1946. Such men will be called up on reaching the age of 18. Men called up in 1947 will serve for two years, and those called up in 1948 will serve for a period varying from two years to one year and six months.

The Women's Services are to be continued on a voluntary basis as permanent features of the forces of the Crown.

Deferment on grounds of industrial need will be confined to coalmining, agriculture, building, and the production of certain building materials. Deferments will be granted for professional and industrial apprentices in addition to university candidates, but on completion of their training or studies they will then be called up.

Territorial Army

On 27th June 1946 the Secretary of State for War announced the Government's intention to reconstruct the Territorial Army. The precise role and organisation of this force have not yet been made known, but are expected to be announced before the end of 1946, when general invitations to join the force will be issued. The responsibility for its administration will lie with the Territorial Army and Air Force Associations. The pre-war strength of the Territorial Army seldom exceeded 150,000 officers and men.

The Auxiliary Air Force

On 27th April 1946 the Under-Secretary of State for Air announced the re-creation of the Auxiliary Air Force which existed before the war.

It is to be re-formed with 13 day fighter, 3 night fighter, and 4 light bomber squadrons—these will form part of the first line post-war Air Force. Recruitment will be on a territorial basis. In addition to operational units, non-flying Auxiliary Squadrons will also be formed.

The University Air Squadrons are to be re-created.

The Reserve Command of the Royal Air Force is to be re-established in the immediate future. Its primary functions will be to maintain and train adequate reserves of flying and ground personnel. To that end it will recruit to the R.A.F.V.R.; foster the creation and development of the Auxiliary Air Force; assume responsibility for the Air Training Corps; re-create the University Air Squadrons. Group Headquarters of Reserve Command will be set up.

The Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve

The R.N.V.R. is being reconstituted and divisions set up as follows: London, Sussex, Severn, Mersey, Clyde, Ulster, Forth, Tay, Tyne, Humber, Solent. The formation of an Air Branch is being considered and the Royal Naval Volunteer (Wireless) Reserve is also being reconstituted with centres at inland towns for the training of officers and telegraphist and radio mechanic ratings.

3. PAY AND CONDITIONS

Since the end of the war the Government has announced new Post-War Codes of Pay, Allowances and Service Pensions for members of the Armed Forces—officers and other ranks. In the Defence Vote for 1946–7 an extra £20 million has been allotted to implement these new Pay Codes.

The new *Post-War Code of Pay, Allowances and Service Pensions and Gratuities for Members of the Forces below Officer Rank* (Cmd. 6715) was published on 19th December 1945. It presents a pay code for all three Services which results in a broad equality of treatment between them and fixes rates of pay that compare with civilian wages in Government Industrial Establishments. The new rates of pay represent a considerable increase over the former rates of basic pay and are very much in advance of pre-war rates; in particular they recognise the fighting man who is not a tradesman. The recruit on entry receives, as from 1st July 1946, 28s. a week instead of 21s., and 14s. a week pre-war. Similarly the trained infantryman whose pay before the war was 21s. a week, during the war 31s. 6d. a week, now receives 42s. a week.

Under the Post-war Code there is a flat rate of Marriage Allowances for all married men qualified to receive the allowance—the basic rate being 35s. a week. Higher rates are given to men of the rank of sergeant and above. New basic scales of pensions, common to all three Services, are provided for men completing 22 years' service, with a higher scale for men completing longer periods. A new scheme of gratuities for men, not eligible for service pension, on completion of ten years' service, has also been introduced. Increments of pay are granted after five years' service in the case of a private, and after four years in the case of sergeants and warrant officers.

The Post-War Code of Payment Allowance, Retired Pay and Service Gratuities for Commissioned Officers (Cmd. 6750) was published on 6th March 1946. The same general principles have been followed as for ratings and other ranks. Disparities between the Services and within each Service have been removed. The various systems and rates of marriage allowances and other allowances are replaced by common systems with common rates for all three Services. Particular attention has been paid to the case of the junior officer in all three Services: pay and allow-

ances have been fixed at a level which enables him to live without private means. Large increases in pay and allowances are provided about the age when an officer may expect to be faced with increasing family commitments and responsibilities of rank. Marriage and other allowances are now taxable; before the war they were tax free. Increments of pay are now made at two-yearly intervals within any given rank. New schemes of retired pay have also been brought into operation.

Complete details of these rates of pay for officers and other ranks will be found in the two White Papers mentioned above: *Cmd. 6715* and *6750*.

4. REVISED SYSTEM OF ENTRY AND TRAINING FOR COMMISSIONED RANKS

(a) **The Royal Navy.**—Candidates for the Royal Navy either enter through the Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, after a competitive examination, at the age of 13, or candidates who have attained certain academic standards can enter naval training establishments after another competitive examination at the age of 18 or 19. Opportunities for promotion from the lower deck are far greater than in pre-war days, but generally arrangements for entry into the commissioned ranks of the Royal Navy remain unchanged from those that existed in 1939.

(b) **The Army.**—The Royal Military College, Sandhurst, and the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, have been amalgamated and are now known as the Royal Military Academy, Sandhurst. The new academy is responsible for the training of candidates for Regular Commissions in the Household Cavalry, Royal Armoured Corps, Royal Artillery, Royal Engineers, Royal Signals, Foot Guards, Infantry, Army Air Corps, Royal Army Service Corps, Royal Army Ordnance Corps, and Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers.

Vacancies are filled from two sources: candidates selected on the results of an entrance examination (age $17\frac{1}{2}$ to $18\frac{1}{2}$ years) and candidates already serving in the ranks, who will be chosen for qualities of leadership and who will not have to undergo an entrance examination (age $18\frac{1}{2}$ to $19\frac{1}{2}$ years). Both types must serve a minimum of six months in the ranks before entry.

The course lasts 18 months: the first entrance examination is to be held in the autumn of 1946 and will in future be held half-yearly, the number of vacancies to be filled being about 1,000 annually. Advanced instruction will be given at the Academy to certain officers commissioned into the Royal Engineers, Royal Signals, and the Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers. On 14th March 1946 the Secretary of State for War, Mr. Lawson, announced the reorganisation, on the most up-to-date lines, of the *Military College of Science*. Post-graduate courses will be held there to qualify officers for technical posts, in particular those within the Ministry of Supply. Officers will take this course between the ages of 28 and 32.

(c) **The Royal Air Force.**—The first post-war course at the R.A.F. College, Cranwell, at which permanent commissions in the General Duties Branch of the R.A.F. were given, took place in October 1946. Applications had been invited. The course provides, in addition to normal flying training, educational and general service to fit cadets for employment as officers. On graduating they should have reached the standard of the second year's work for a university pass degree and be qualified as pilots and in air navigation.

Arrangements for this first post-war entry are of an interim nature only. The general peace-time conditions of admission to, and residence at, the College are to be announced by the Government in the immediate future.

V. EDUCATION

"Our aim is to provide equal opportunities for all children, based on the ability of the child, and irrespective of the means of the parent . . . but there is even nearer my heart . . . the desire that all our children who are attending primary schools shall have at least four years of sound secondary education, suited to their ability and aptitude, entirely free. . . ." The Minister of Education, Miss Ellen Wilkinson, 1.7.46.

1. GENERAL

(a) *Structure.*—The system of education in England and Wales combines variety and freedom, and its most characteristic features in organisation are decentralisation of administration, the prominent part played by voluntary agencies, and the freedom of teachers from official direction on curricula and methods of teaching.

Teachers are servants of the local authorities or of the governing bodies of their schools. The relation of the central authority (the Board, or since 3rd August 1944, the Ministry of Education) to local authorities (L.E.A.s.) is based on consultation and co-operation by direct contact with the Minister and his Department and through the intermediary of His Majesty's Inspectors, who act as liaison officers.

Publicly maintained schools and institutions provide education falling into three main categories: primary, secondary, and further. Primary schools cover the period up to 11, including the nursery stage (2 to 5). Secondary schools of a variety of types, Grammar, Technical and Modern, cover the ages 11 to 18, and secondary education will in future be available for all children of 11 and over. Further education includes a variety of provisions: technical colleges, evening institutes, adult education classes and so on. (See Ministry of Education's Pamphlet, No. 2, *A Guide to the Educational System of England and Wales*, H.M.S.O., 1s.)

The *Education Act*, 1944, greatly simplified the general structure and provided for a general levelling-up of standards, without sacrificing variety or freedom. It became law on the 3rd August 1944, and came into operation for most purposes on 1st April 1945. Its main changes included:

The giving of effective power to the Minister of Education to secure the development of a national educational policy.

The appointment of two Central Advisory Councils, one for England and one for Wales, to advise the Minister on educational theory and practice.

Classification of education into three successive stages: primary, secondary and further, to supersede previous distinction between elementary and higher education.

Reorganisation of the existing publicly maintained elementary schools to be completed so that well-designed primary schools are available for all children up to 11, and secondary schools for all children over that age.

(From April 1945 no tuition fees have been charged in primary and secondary schools of any type maintained by local authorities.)

Compulsory part-time education in due course for young persons up to 18 in County Colleges. If they do not attend school full-time they must attend one whole day or two half-days each week for 44 days each year, or a period of 8 weeks (or two periods of 4 weeks) if more suitable. (Proposals for County Colleges are fully outlined in the Ministry of Education's Pamphlet, No. 3, *Youth's Opportunity*, H.M.S.O., 1s.) (See also under YOUTH p. 130).

Extension of existing facilities for securing the health of children and young people. Better and more varied education provided for handicapped children. (New Regulations dealing with special educational treatment for handicapped children, including arrangements for boarding out with foster parents, and the school medical and dental services were issued on 19th April 1945.)

Registration and inspection of independent schools to become compulsory as soon as the necessary inspecting staff is available. The school-leaving age will be raised to 15 without exemptions on 1st April 1947, with provision for later raising it to 16.

On 1st April 1945 it became the duty of all L.E.A.s to prepare *Development Plans* covering the adequate provision of primary and secondary schools for all children in their areas.

(b) *Finance*.—A very large proportion of the expenditure on education is met out of public funds, that is, money provided by Parliament out of taxes or by L.E.A.s out of rates. The amount of grant paid to L.E.A.s by the Ministry out of the money provided by Parliament is related to the amount of approved expenditure incurred by the L.E.A.s and is in total equal to more than half this. As from 1st April 1945 the standard percentage of Exchequer grant payable to each authority was increased by five. The first annual grant (1833) was £20,000. The annual expenditure of public money on education in 1945 was over £120 million, of which the net expenditure of the Ministry amounted to about £65 million and the net expenditure of the L.E.A.s out of rates was about £54 million. In presenting the estimates for 1946, the Minister of Education said: "For the first time, over £100 million is asked for on the Ministry of Education vote. . . ." The total expenditure is likely to rise to £200 million when the reforms of the 1944 Act are completed.

(c) *Grants and Scholarships*.—No fees may now be charged for tuition in any type of primary or secondary school maintained by L.E.A.s. Free tuition includes free provision of books and any necessary equipment. The Minister of Education accepts the principle that opportunities of education in direct grant grammar schools, i.e., grammar schools receiving grants direct from the Ministry, should be available to boys and girls capable of profiting by them irrespective of their parents' income. To achieve this, the conditions under which grant was paid were altered as from the beginning of the educational year 1945-6. The main new condition was that not less than 25 per cent of the previous year's admissions must be offered free each year to pupils who had at any time been under instruction for two years at a grant-aided primary school. Further, parents will pay nothing if their income (with one child only) does not exceed £7 10s. a week. Above that income the fees will graduate according to means.

On 20th May 1946 the Ministry of Education announced details of a policy designed to ensure that every really promising boy and girl capable of benefiting by a university education receives an adequate allowance to cover tuition and maintenance. At present the number of State Scholarships tenable for university honours degree courses is 360 annually.

Under new Draft Regulations, any student who wins an open or State Scholarship, or its equivalent, will, from the autumn of 1946, receive from the Ministry such supplementary financial help towards the cost of his tuition and maintenance as may be necessary to enable him to take full advantage of his university course. This will apply to all winners of open scholarships and exhibitions, State Scholarships, and to winners of closed scholarships or exhibitions where the Minister is satisfied that the conditions of the awards are of a sufficiently high standard. *The limit of £100 to the Ministry's contribution to a State Scholarship has been removed.*

Thus the Ministry can make up a student's award to cover the full cost of tuition and maintenance where the parents' net income is less than £600 a year. On

incomes above this level there will be a graduated scale of contributions. If the parents' income exceeds £1,500 no supplementary payment will be made.

It is expected that the Ministry of Education will be directly responsible for assisting about 1,200 open scholars or exhibitioners and 360 State scholars, and that the local education authorities for their part will assist a comparable number of students. Their approved expenditure on this service will be recognised for grant by the Ministry.

On 6th June 1946 it was announced that the award of Travelling and Industrial Scholarships, discontinued during the war, would be restored. They will be open to persons employed in industry and will be tenable at the Royal College of Arts for one year. Conditions will be as described above.

The Ministry also award about 30 Royal Scholarships and Studentships in Science, and about 60 Scholarships and Exhibitions in Art each year. Some 1,500 scholarships with maintenance grants are also awarded by L.E.A.s.

Numerous exhibitions and scholarships are awarded from their own funds by all the universities—notably by the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge—and also by private benefactions. Approximately 40 to 50 per cent of Great Britain's university students are receiving financial assistance from other than private sources.

During the war over 6,000 State Bursaries in physics with radio, engineering (mechanical and electrical), chemistry, metallurgy, and also in glass technology, were awarded by the Ministry to selected boys and girls. Some 3,000 Engineering Cadetships were given to boys of 17 and 18 for training for commissioned rank in technical units of the Services.

2. HEALTH AND WELFARE OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

(a) *School Medical Service.*—For some 40 years the principle has been accepted that the State has a special responsibility as regards the health of school children. The 1944 Act provides for the widest possible advance in this field, and the School Medical Service will be closely co-ordinated with the proposed National Health Service. Under the 1944 Act, the work of regular medical inspection and provision of treatment, undertaken by L.E.A.s through their medical and nursing staff, is extended to cover all children in primary and secondary schools maintained by L.E.A.s and also, when they are established, attending County Colleges. Treatment will be both compulsory and free.

The 1944 Act accordingly requires the local education authority to ascertain all children who need special educational treatment, including what are known as "maladjusted" children, and to provide special educational treatment in ordinary schools for those less severely and in special schools for those more severely handicapped. More special schools are to be provided and parents may ask for the examination of any child over two years with a view to its being given such special education as it may need. The compulsory age of attendance for all handicapped children needing education in special schools is standardised at 5 to 16.

(b) *Meals and Milk.*—Since 1906 L.E.A.s have been able to provide milk and meals for pupils of elementary schools who are unable, owing to lack of food, to take full advantage of the education provided. Since 1939 the School Meals Service has been greatly expanded, and it is now the Government's policy that, as soon as is practicable, school dinners and milk should be provided free at all schools maintained by L.E.A.s for all children. (Until the provision of school canteen facilities is completed a charge, usually of about 5d. a meal, subject to total or part remission, is made.) In 1938 the average daily number of dinners supplied was 210,000. The corresponding figure in 1945 was approximately 1,730,000, and on

28th May 1946 the Minister of Education said: "The School Meals Service is already the largest catering service in the country, with 17,500 school canteens supplying just under 1,900,000 meals a day. . . ."

Under the 1944 Act, the provision of milk, like that of meals, is converted from a power into a duty of L.E.A.s. School milk became free of charge in all grant-aided primary and secondary schools as from August 1946. Consumption of school milk by 1947 will, on a rough calculation, be 53 million gallons per annum.

(c) **Nursery Schools.**—Under the 1944 Act, greater facilities for the education of children below compulsory school age are called for in the provision of nursery schools or nursery classes attached to primary schools. Through nursery schools, nursery classes attached to primary schools, and other agencies, provision during war time has been made for nearly 250,000 children under five. Courses at special colleges are provided for training of nursery teachers. Plans for adapting to post-war needs the war-time services for the day-time care of children under five are to be worked out locally. From 31st March 1946 such war-time nurseries as became nursery schools or nursery classes were given the normal grant from the Ministry of Education.

(d) **Child Guidance Clinics.**—The organised development of Child Guidance in Britain dates from 1927. In 1938 there were 43 clinics in England and Wales and 11 in Scotland for the psychiatric treatment of nervous, difficult and retarded children. Twenty-six of the clinics were wholly or partly maintained by local authorities. War-time evacuation provided valuable experience in the treatment of "difficult" children. Two hundred and fifteen hostels for children who were hard to place in private billets were established in England and Wales. The results in these hostels were shown in the report of a survey made by the Ministry of Health in 1943 (*Hostels for Difficult Children*, H.M.S.O., 1944, 6d.).

There are now (1946) 66 Child Guidance Clinics provided by L.E.A.s, and 49 other authorities have established a child guidance service, using clinics provided by voluntary bodies or other local authorities. In all these cases the services of qualified psychiatrists are employed.

3. TRAINING OF TEACHERS

(a) **Supply.**—The supply of teachers will be a crucial factor in the rate of educational progress. Roughly speaking, the development policy on which Britain is determined will require some 300,000 teachers in place of a pre-war figure of under 200,000. When the full effect of the raising of the school-leaving age is felt, 13,000 new teachers will be required on that ground alone. In April 1946 there were 180,004 teachers in primary and secondary schools maintained by L.E.A.s: 51,693 men and 128,311 women. These figures show how great is the leeway to be made up, and every effort is being made to increase the supply. Besides the normal training institutions—training colleges and university training departments—there is a vigorously working scheme of special "emergency" training colleges for men and women from the forces or other forms of national service who wish to become teachers. These colleges provide an intensive course of training lasting for one year, followed by two years' probation. Courses are included preparing students for work in nursery schools and in domestic subjects. Teachers trained in this way are regarded as fully qualified teachers. By August 1946 twenty-one of these emergency training colleges were open and it is hoped that there will be about 40 in action by the end of the year. A special effort is being made to increase the proportion of men teachers.

The Ministry of Education, the Universities, L.E.A.s and other bodies provide a variety of short courses for practising teachers of all kinds, including teachers in technical and commercial schools.

(b) **National System of Training.**—Area organisations are being set up to secure a closer relationship between the Universities, Training Colleges and L.E.A.s, and these three partners will co-operate to establish an educational centre in each area to serve as a focus of interest and activity, not only for students in training and the staffs responsible for them but also practising teachers in all types of institutions in the area and for the authorities themselves. (The arrangements are being made in accordance with the recommendations of the McNair Committee. See the Report : *Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders*, H.M.S.O., 2s.)

(c) **Interchange Scheme.**—Seventy-five teachers from all types of schools in Great Britain are being placed, as far as is possible, in schools of comparable type in the U.S.A. American teachers from these schools will take the place of the British teachers in this country. Next year the scheme will be expanded and the target may be as high as 250 teachers. The exchanges will last for a year.

4. BROADCASTING TO SCHOOLS

School broadcasting is being used more and more, for it has proved to be an additional teaching resource and a very successful one. The number of schools registered as listening to them at the end of the Summer Term was 12,500.

Thirty-nine broadcasts every week—about 1,300 in a year—are handled by the School Broadcasting Department. Outside people, with special experience or gifts, and script-writers do some of the work, and there are about 35 people inside the Corporation, educationists, drama producers, ex-teachers, a repertory company of actors or actresses, specialists in the teaching of music and history and science, etc. There is a wide range of broadcasts to suit all ages, and this also applies to music and languages.

Then again there is another team at work : officers of the Central Council for School Broadcasting ; they keep the inside men informed about how broadcasts are used, reporting back on points of success and watching carefully the changing conditions in the schools.

As it is essential to have the closest co-operation of teachers and that they should know how to use these broadcasts, the staff of the Central Council for School Broadcasting used to give regular demonstrations to training colleges and University Training Departments, but this service was not sufficient and a Summer School for Tutors of Training Colleges was held at Bedford College last year. It proved an outstanding success and many students are returning this year.

5. ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education especially shows the national characteristics of variety and freedom. A large part of it is vocational in character, but there is also a substantial measure of general education.

Much of it is provided by L.E.A.s in the form of technical, commercial and art colleges, and in evening institutes. During the season of 1945–6 the London County Council alone catered for 150,000 students taking 300 subjects in 150 institutes. These institutes divide the students into classes of about 20 students each, and a great effort is made to attract as many students as possible.

Important provision is also made by voluntary bodies, such as the British Institute of Adult Education and the Workers' Educational Association. In 1944–5 the latter catered for nearly 90,000 students in over 4,500 classes.

The universities also cater for a large number of students, by means of summer schools, and (through extra-mural organisations) by means of courses complementary to those of the L.E.A.s and voluntary bodies. For all these activities provision is made for direct grant from the Ministry of Education to the appropriate responsible body.

Miss Ellen Wilkinson stated on 9th July 1946 : " Twenty local education authorities have taken, or are taking, steps to secure the provision of adult education colleges, in some cases working in co-operation, either directly or by aiding schemes sponsored by voluntary bodies. Sites and premises for 12 such colleges have either been acquired or are about to be acquired."

One is now operating and arrangements for opening others are in an advanced stage. Adult education colleges form part of the provision of further education.

6. UNIVERSITIES

The Ministry of Education has no jurisdiction over the universities, and its relations with them are concerned mainly with the training of teachers, the provision of adult education, and the award of State Scholarships and Bursaries.

There are 12 degree-giving self-governing universities in England and Wales. Oxford and Cambridge, each with a number of colleges, are very old foundations and are residential. The remainder (including Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds Exeter, Manchester, Liverpool and Sheffield), three of which—London, Durham and Wales—also comprise groups of largely autonomous colleges, are mainly non-residential. The total number of full-time students before the war was over 40,000, and 23 per cent of these were women. Oxford and Cambridge account for 10 700, London for 12,900, the provincial universities for 13,400, and Wales for 3,400.

University degree courses generally extend over three or four years, though in medicine five or six years are required. All the universities provide for post-graduate work and research.

The universities, though self-governing institutions, receive aid from the State in the form of direct grants from the Treasury made on the advice of the University Grants Committee, composed of academic experts. The Chancellor of the Exchequer announced (22.2.46) : " I propose to ask Parliament to vote £9,450,000 for grants to the universities in 1946-7. This is £3,800,000 more than was voted last year." The increase includes £2,250,000 for capital grants, and £100,000 more for dental education. For the year beginning October 1946, preference in entry of students to the universities will be given to men who have served in the Armed Forces and others who have been engaged for an equivalent period in important civilian work.

7. PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Outside the national system is that characteristic English institution the Public School, usually an independent secondary boarding school, though the term may also include certain day grammar schools, most of which are direct grant schools, that is, schools receiving grants direct from the Ministry of Education. Many of the public schools go back to the sixteenth century ; Winchester (1382) and Eton (1440) are older still. Their part in education cannot be over-estimated. In the nineteenth century the public school system was widely influenced by outstanding headmasters, such as Arnold of Rugby, whose insistence on the importance of character-building helped to give public school education its unique character.

Private schools are independent schools owned by an individual or group of individuals, and preparatory schools are independent (usually boarding) schools for pupils aged about 8-13 intending to enter public schools.

With a view to developing and extending the association between the public schools and the general educational system of the country, the Fleming Committee broadly recommended (Ju'y 1944) that opportunities in public schools should be made available to all boys and girls capable of profiting by them. In regard to day schools the Minister of Education has already accepted the main principle on which the Committee's recommendations are based. As from 1st April 1945 direct grant schools must offer 25 per cent of their places to non-fee-paying pupils

from grant-aided primary schools. The other recommendations are being carefully considered.

8. SCOTLAND

The Scottish educational system is not an offshoot of education in England : it is a vigorous, independent growth, from Acts of the Scots Parliament of 1696 and earlier years. Scotland has for long cherished the ideal of a comprehensive system which would provide the fullest possible measure of education for all those who are capable of profiting by the facilities provided, and the *Education (Scotland) Acts* of 1872, 1908, 1918, and 1945 have made successive advances towards the achievement of this aim. The last-mentioned Act contained fewer innovations than its English counterpart of 1944, because some of the major reforms embodied in the English measure had already been in operation in Scotland for many years.

The Minister responsible for education in Scotland is the Secretary of State for Scotland, who acts through the Scottish Education Department.

There is a standing Advisory Council on Education in Scotland which is usually reconstituted triennially. Since its reconstitution in November 1942 the Advisory Council, under remits made by the Secretary of State, has inquired into and reported upon various aspects of the educational system, including Compulsory Day Continuation Classes, Training for Citizenship, the post-war Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers, Adult Education Grants, Education Authority Bursaries, Technical Education, the Training of Teachers, Primary Education and Secondary Education.

Since the passing of the *Education (Scotland) Act*, 1945, the Secretary of State has issued a number of important Regulations. Chief among them are those relating to Standard National Scales of Salaries for Teachers ; Emergency Arrangements for the Recruitment and Training of the Additional Teachers required in connection with the raising of the School Leaving Age ; Social and Physical Training Grants ; Grants to Central Institutions, to Education Authorities and to non-Education Authority schools ; School Meals Service ; Grants in aid of Educational Development and Research ; Bursaries to Persons over School Age ; and the School Medical Service.

A Bill to consolidate the enactments relating to Education in Scotland, which covers enactments from 1872 to 1945, received the Royal Assent on 6th November 1946.

UNIVERSITIES

There are four Scottish universities : St. Andrews, founded in 1411 ; Glasgow (1450) ; Aberdeen (1494) ; and Edinburgh (1583).

9. NORTHERN IRELAND

When Northern Ireland became in 1921 a self-governing unit of the United Kingdom, the newly constituted Ministry of Education assumed control of the educational services. In December 1944 a White Paper, *Educational Reconstruction in Northern Ireland*, was published, outlining the Northern Ireland Government's proposals in this field. Many of the proposals are akin to those incorporated in the English Act of 1944. A Bill was published (26th September 1946) providing for the complete reorganisation of primary education. Free secondary education will be available for all children able to profit by it, and there will be still further facilities for technical education, already highly developed in Northern Ireland.

The apex of Ulster's educational structure is Queen's University, Belfast.

VI. EMPLOYMENT

I. GOVERNMENT POLICY

The Government's Employment Policy forms part of the wider policy of promoting the efficient use of all the country's resources both human and material. Measures designed to this end will thus fall into two classes :

- (a) Those aimed primarily at the economic and industrial efficiency of the country, with a secondary effect on employment.
- (b) Those aimed primarily at securing a high level of employment.

The policy on employment is comprehensively set out in the White Paper, *Employment Policy* (Cmd. 6527, H.M.S.O., 6d.), published under the late Coalition Government, on 28th May 1944. Spokesmen of the present Government in recent debates have indicated that the Government considers itself committed at least to the general policy outlined in the White Paper.

The following measures are proposed in the White Paper :

- (1) Measures to secure a balanced distribution of industry and labour.
- (2) Measures to promote the mobility of labour.
- (3) Measures to maintain total national expenditure at a level which will ensure that unemployment due to a general deficiency of demand for the products of labour does not develop.
- (4) Measures to obtain the necessary statistics on employment and investment for planning (3) above.
- (5) Measures to maintain a stable price and wage structure.

(For fuller note on the White Paper see *Post-War Reconstruction in Britain*, R.616, pp. 95-99).

The *Distribution of Industry Act*, 1945, represents the first fruits of the paragraphs of the White Paper (20-30) which deal with the balanced distribution of industry. This Act empowers the Government to exercise a general measure of control over the distribution of industry ; but it has the specialised object of encouraging a healthy and diversified industrial life in certain areas which in the past have proved particularly liable to unemployment. In these areas, now called Development Areas, the Board of Trade is empowered to build and lease factories directly or through non-profitmaking industrial estate companies. Provision is also made where necessary for improving the basic services (roads, power and water supplies), and for the acquisition and clearance of land covered by derelict factories, etc. In present conditions of shortage of labour and material, the Board of Trade has been able to extend its sphere of activity, at least as regards influencing location of industry, to include the country as a whole. Factory building, like other building, is subject to licence, and licences are more readily granted for building in Development Areas than elsewhere.

There are six *Development Areas* : the North-East, South Wales, West Cumberland, Central Scotland, the Wigan and St. Helens district of South Lancashire, and the Wrexham district of North Wales. For many years before the war these areas had experienced acute and prolonged unemployment as a result of undue dependence

upon a narrow range of heavy industries which were declining in importance. No new industries replaced them and the effects of unemployment in these areas were particularly serious.

The war brought about, although slowly, a state of full employment through a restoration of activity in most of the basic industries—industries of particular value in time of war—and through the setting-up of many war plants.

The Government has taken advantage of this full employment to push forward with present schemes and to introduce further factories on a considerable scale. A point of advantage is that many thousands of men and women in these areas have for the first time worked in factories and gained considerable skill.

New Factories.—With regard to new factories generally, it was announced on 20th June 1946 that 1,453 new factories and extensions had been approved for construction in Great Britain since the war ended, at an estimated cost of £62,000,000. Of these 585 are in the Development Areas and 262 are in course of construction. The 585 factories will provide additional employment for 135,000 persons; 72,000 men and 63,000 women. The estimated cost of the factories is about £31,000,000. Roughly half this expenditure will be incurred by the Government in building factories to let. The other factories in the development areas will be built by private enterprise. The bulk of the factories so far approved in the Development Areas are in South Wales (192), the North-Eastern area (184), and Scotland (172).

Light Industries.—In accordance with the policy of making these areas less dependent upon the basic industries the new factories will provide employment in a whole range of light industries, in most of which women as well as men can find work. These industries include the manufacture of clothing, hosiery, glass, coal-mining machinery, plastics, light engineering products, sheet metal, furniture, radio and electrical equipment, and toys. Special efforts are being made to create a flourishing British toy industry.

Private Enterprise.—The 868 new factories and extensions approved for construction outside the Development Areas will also cost about £31,000,000, and these will all be financed and provided by private enterprise. These factories will find additional employment for some 83,000 persons, 53,000 men and 30,000 women. Of these other factories so far approved only 98 are in the London and South-Eastern area. The Government's policy is to prevent as far as possible any substantial expansion of industry in London and its vicinity and to attract industrialists to other parts of the country, particularly to the Development Areas. A further analysis of the factories approved outside the Development Areas shows that 173 of them are in the North-Western area, 155 in the Midlands, 131 in Yorkshire, 91 in the North Midlands, and 54 in Scotland.

The Location of Industry Planning Room.—This was started in 1943 by the Ministry of Production to provide the best possible information for the Production Directorates of Supply Departments in setting up new capacity for war production; this has now been adapted for peace-time purposes by the Board of Trade. Information given in this room for the guidance of industrialists includes maps and charts of factories and production, labour supply, drainage and housing, etc.

Distribution of Industry Committee.—In each region there is a Distribution of Industry Committee which is presided over by the Regional Controller of the Board of Trade.

Census of Production and Distribution Committee.—A Census of Production Committee was formed to recommend what amendments should be made to the

Census of Production Act, and a Distribution Committee to consider whether a Census of Distribution should be instituted to review the wholesale and retail distribution of goods.

Regional Boards.—The Regional Boards provide an opportunity for the Government and employers to work together to discuss broad questions of production and local and national needs. Established in 1940, they keep local industry advised of Government policy in relation to industry, and keep Headquarters informed of the views of local industry, and exercise their activity over the whole field of productive industry.

Mobility of Labour.—The Government's policy is that labour should be mobile as between occupations rather than as between places. The Ministry of Labour and National Service is already providing vocational training (see below, p. 47) at the moment mainly for the resettlement of demobilised persons, but eventually to train unemployed for new occupations.

The Maintenance of Total National Expenditure at a level which will give full employment to our labour force is the kernel of the Employment Policy. The most variable item in national expenditure (other than expenditure on the foreign balance) is expenditure on investment. Public investment is relatively stable while private investment is relatively unstable but forms a large proportion of total investment. Measures will aim at :

- (a) inducing private investment to maintain itself steadily at the optimum level ;
- (b) planning public investment in such a way that it can be accelerated to make up for deficiencies in private investment, or retarded to compensate for private over-investment.

The only legislative proposals so far under this heading are those contained in the *Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act*, 1946, which received the Royal Assent on 12th July. The Act has two main purposes. First, it seeks to give the Treasury permanent powers to control new access to the capital market. These powers will help to ensure that when capital outlay has to be restricted the essential requirements of industry and of public authorities do not suffer in comparison with less important demands. Secondly, the Act empowers the Treasury to guarantee loans for the reconstruction or development of an industry or part of an industry. This is primarily an anti-slump weapon, but may also be used at other times to ensure that capital is available for special schemes, e.g., for developing backward industries.

The Act provides for the establishment of a *National Investment Council* to advise and assist the Government in so organising and, where necessary, stimulating investment as to promote full employment. This Council, under the chairmanship of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, held its first meeting on 23rd July 1946.

Finance Corporations.—In addition to the powers given to the Treasury under the above-mentioned Act to guarantee loans to industry two Finance Corporations have been set up to finance the rehabilitation and development of industry in the post-war period, one for large concerns, the other for small and medium-sized concerns.

Investment.—Local Authorities and Public Utility Undertakings have been asked to submit programmes of capital expenditure for the next three years and to arrange the returns according to availability. It is hoped to obtain similar information on private investment.

Collection of Statistics.—Measures are being taken to provide a body of statistics giving quantitative information about current economic movements. Some of these

have been included in the *Monthly Digest of Statistics*, publication of which began in January 1946. As regards the actual movements and employment of labour the Ministry has arranged for :

- (a) the maintenance of certain employment records giving information about the employment and industrial structure of each area in the country ;
- (b) the compilation of periodical reports by each Local Officer and Regional Office of the Ministry on the current state of employment ; and
- (c) the collection of information from employers as to the numbers they employ.

2. MANPOWER

(a) War Casualties of Forces, Merchant Navy, Civilians

	Total	Armed Forces	Women's Auxiliary Services	Home Guard	M.N. and Fishing Fleet	Civilians
Killed ..	357,116	264,443	624	1,206	30,248	60,595
Missing	46,079*	41,327	98	—	4,654	—
Wounded	369,267	277,077	744	557	4,707	86,182
Prisoners of War and Internees	178,332	172,592	20	—	5,720	†
TOTAL	950,794	755,439	1,486	1,763	45,329	146,777

(Source : Cmd. 6832)

* Including 6,244 still missing at 28.2.46 and 39,835 who rejoined their units.

† The number of U.K. civilians interned in enemy-occupied countries is not known.

(b) *Re-allocation of manpower.*—The progress of demobilisation and reabsorption of manpower in civilian employment can be seen in the following tables. It should be noted that in June 1946 there were 760,000 men and women who had left the Forces but had not returned to civilian employment.

(i) TOTALS IN MAIN CATEGORIES

(Thousands)

	Mid-1939	Mid-1943	Mid-1945	Mid-1946
Manufacture for Home Market	4,680	2,412	2,624	4,615
Manufacture for Export ..	990	257	417	1,326
Total	5,670	2,669	3,041	5,941
Basic Industries and Services ..	4,683	5,027	5,111	5,295
Building and Civil Engineering	1,310	726	722	1,170
Distributive Trades	2,887	2,009	1,958	2,210
Other Services	2,100	1,510	1,490	1,641
Total Home Civilian Market and Export	16,650	9,272	12,322	16,257

(i) TOTALS IN MAIN CATEGORIES—*continued*
(Thousands)

	Mid-1939	Mid-1943	Mid-1945	Mid-1946
Manufacture of Equipment and Supplies for the Forces ..	1,270	5,180	3,887	717
Total in Industry	17,920	17,121	16,209	16,974
Civil Defence, N.F.S. and Police Armed Forces and Auxiliary Services	80 480	323 4,757	127 5,090	88 2,034
Total in Forces, N.F.S., Police and in Industry	18,480	22,201	21,426	19,096
Ex-H.M. Forces who have not yet taken up employment ..	—	—	40	760
Insured persons registered as unemployed	1,270	60	103	376
Total Working Population ..	19,750	22,281	21,569	20,232

(ii) INDUSTRY
(including non-manufacturing industries and services)

	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Total</i>
Mid-1939 ..	13,083,000	4,837,000	17,920,000
Mid-1943 ..	10,422,000	6,699,000	17,121,000
Mid-1945 ..	9,986,000	6,223,000	16,209,000
Mid-1946 ..	11,589,000	5,385,000	16,974,000

(iii) FORCES AND AUXILIARY SERVICES

	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Total</i>
Mid-1939 ..	480,000	—	480,000
Mid-1943 ..	4,296,000	461,000	4,757,000
Mid-1945 ..	4,653,000	437,000	5,090,000
Mid-1946 ..	1,896,000	138,000	2,034,000

(iv) CIVIL DEFENCE, NATIONAL FIRE SERVICE AND POLICE

	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Total</i>
Mid-1939 ..	80,000	—	80,000
Mid-1943 ..	253,000	70,000	323,000
Mid-1945 ..	112,000	15,000	127,000
Mid-1946 ..	84,000	4,000	88,000

3. MANPOWER ORGANISATION

(a) **The Employment Exchange Service.**—The principal agency for the implementation of the manpower provisions of the White Paper, *Employment Policy*, is the Local Office Service of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. This service is provided by approximately 1,200 Employment Exchanges and their subsidiary Employment Offices and Branch Employment Offices, which deal with the public on all local aspects of the work of the Department. A small number of special offices deal with particular types of workers, e.g., dockers and persons employed in the building and catering trades.

Local Employment Committees, composed of representatives of employers, workers and other local interests, are attached to most Employment Exchanges as advisory bodies to secure for the Department the full benefit of local knowledge and the close co-operation of employers and workpeople.

The primary function of Local Offices is to bring together employers requiring workpeople and workers seeking employment. Their aim is to provide an efficient service both to employers and workpeople and to organise the movement of labour from job to job and from district to district in such a way that employers may obtain as quickly as possible workers suitable for their requirements, and that those in search of employment may speedily find the work best suited to their qualifications and experience.

Another important function of Local Offices is the compilation and maintenance of local employment records designed to assist in the preparation of a general assessment of the economic position and trends for the purpose of implementing the Government's policy of maintaining a high and stable level of employment.

Local Offices are also responsible for registrations under the *National Service Acts* and, where necessary, for the reference of appeals to Hardship Committees set up under the Acts. Some of these offices are also responsible for the maintenance of the registers and for the medical examination arrangements for men liable for service with the Forces.

The following particular provisions of the Department's policy are operated through the medium of the Local Offices :

- (1) The maintenance of the Register of Disabled Persons, the placing in employment or vocational training of such persons and follow-up action to ensure that they have been satisfactorily settled.

The *Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944*, has as its main provision the establishment of a Register of Disabled Persons and it is compulsory for an employer of over 20 persons to engage a percentage (at present 3 per cent) of his employees from this Register. It should be noted that the Register is not confined to personnel discharged from the Forces, but is open to *all* disabled persons over 16 years of age. There are already more than 500,000 names on this Register.

In May 1945 the Minister of Labour and National Service appointed the first Board of Directors of the Disabled Persons Employment Corporation. The function of this body, set up under the Act, is to make special provisions for disabled persons, who, by reason of the nature or severity of their disablement, are unlikely to obtain employment or work on their own account except under special conditions. The Corporation, in addition to providing facilities direct, supplements the work of voluntary organisations and may also make payments to Local Authorities. It has already opened two factories and has its eyes on some 40 other places.

In addition courses in Vocational Training and Industrial Rehabilitation are provided. A residential Industrial Rehabilitation Centre has been set

up at Egham, Surrey. Maintenance allowances are payable in all cases. For Resettlement Grants to Disabled Persons, see (b) below.

(2) Recruitment under the Vocational Training Scheme.

The *Government Vocational Training Scheme* has been devised to help those men and women who served in the Armed Forces, Merchant Navy, full-time Civil Defence or in work of national importance, and who, owing to their service, have not had a chance to start or complete their training for a skilled occupation, or who have had their occupation interrupted by service and are in need of training to enable them to obtain employment of a satisfactory kind.

A comprehensive range of trades, ranging from agriculture to retail distribution, from building to shorthand-typing, is covered. The courses last normally for six months. Maintenance allowances are payable to persons while in training. Persons with dependants are paid higher rates than those without dependants.

The Trade Unions have agreed to accept trainees who complete the course satisfactorily as though they had entered through a normal apprenticeship. In a trade where it is usual for an employee to provide his own tools he is given these free on taking up a job. The job itself is found whenever possible by the Employment Exchange.

(3) Consideration of applications under the Interrupted Apprenticeship Scheme.

The *Interrupted Apprenticeship Scheme* enables apprentices to resume and complete training with their former employer, or, if necessary, some other employer. This scheme covers not only apprentices but learners who were undergoing a period of training in accordance with the custom of their trade. Broadly speaking, an allowance is made for time spent in the Forces and wages are paid according to the year of training the apprentice would have reached had he not been called up.

(4) The Government has safeguarded the rights of men and women returning from the Forces and full-time Civil Defence by the *Reinstatement in Civil Employment Act, 1944*. By this Act the employee must be reinstated *if reasonable and practicable*. In case of dispute the question is referred to a Reinstatement Committee through the local office of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Each Committee set up by the Act consists of a chairman, an employers' representative and a representative of employed persons.

(5) The Resettlement Advice Service, which was set up in order that all possible assistance by information and advice on personal problems and on matters affecting resettlement could be given to men and women returning from war service in the Forces, Civil Defence, or industry. Special offices under the control of the local Employment Exchange Managers have been set up in 370 cities and towns, and there are facilities for obtaining resettlement advice and information at all Employment Offices and Branch Employment Offices which work in co-operation with parent Resettlement Advice Offices.

(6) The maintenance of the Juvenile Employment Service in certain areas.

The *Central Juvenile Employment Service* was established in April 1946. Its aims are :

- (i) to give vocational guidance ;
- (ii) to place the juvenile in employment ;
- (iii) to maintain contact throughout adolescence.

The service is directed by the Central Juvenile Employment Executive, consisting of officers of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, the

Ministry of Education and the Scottish Education Department, assisted by a National Advisory Council for Great Britain with separate Committees for England and Wales. Locally, there are two systems in operation. Some Educational Authorities exercise their powers under the *Unemployment Insurance Act, 1935* (to which Act their powers had been transferred from the *Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910*), and provide a service (Juvenile Employment Bureau). Where they do not, the service is provided by the Ministry of Labour (Juvenile Advisory Committee). In both cases the Minister of Labour is finally responsible to Parliament.

Aim (i) needs legislation which it is hoped to introduce later on.

- (7) The operation of the labour controls, including reference of cases, where necessary, to Local Appeal Boards.

Removal of Controls.—During the war, various controls, among them the Essential Work Orders, were introduced for the purpose of recruiting and maintaining the nation's manpower as fully as possible.

The main purpose of the Essential Work Orders was to prevent loss of production in essential industries and services through unnecessary turnover of labour, absenteeism and indiscipline. Workers covered by these Orders may not leave their employment without the permission of a National Service Officer, and employers may not discharge such workers (except for serious misconduct) without such permission; and the one party has to give the other at least a week's notice. Both employers and workers have a statutory right of appeal to an independent Local Appeal Board against a National Service Officer's decision, and workers also have a similar right of appeal against dismissal on grounds of serious misconduct and disciplinary suspension. Every worker who is covered by an Essential Work Order is entitled, subject to certain conditions, to a guaranteed wage.

Since the end of hostilities the aim of the Government has been to restore individual freedom without peril, however, to the fulfilment of urgent national needs. It was not possible to remove the controls all at once, but all but a few industries have now either been withdrawn or given notice that they will be withdrawn at the end of three months. Among the industries which have not yet been given notice of withdrawal are building and civil engineering, agriculture, Merchant Navy, and shipbuilding and ship-repairing.

(b) **District Manpower Offices.** There are 33 District Manpower Offices, whose primary function is to co-ordinate the allocation of manpower to the Forces and industry. In addition, they are responsible for the work in connection with the Resettlement Grants Scheme.

For those who were in business on their own account and for all disabled persons even though not in business on their own account before service a *Resettlement Grant* may be available. This is intended to help defray the cost of fitting up premises, obtaining equipment, tools, stock and so on. The maximum grant is £150. The scheme does not apply to smallholders, for whom a separate scheme is run by the Ministry of Agriculture.

(c) **Appointments Department.**

The *Appointments Office Service* is intended to meet the needs of those who seek higher appointments than are normally dealt with in an Employment Exchange, i.e., those qualified, or who wish to qualify, for professional, technical, administrative, managerial and supervisory posts. There are 14 of these Appointments Offices in Great Britain staffed by officials of the Ministry of Labour and National Service.

In addition to action to bring together applicants for higher appointments and employers with appointments to offer, Appointments Offices are responsible for the

executive work in connection with the following particular phases of the Department's policy :

(1) The *Further Education and Training Scheme* operates for young men and women with the same service as mentioned above, who, but for their service, would normally have been taking courses of further education, or would have been training for a business or professional career.

Awards may be made for full-time training at a university or other educational institution, or for part-time training taken in conjunction with paid employment. All awards are subject to a financial test. Full-time courses include the payment of tuition fees and a maintenance allowance which may include allowances for dependent wife and children ; part-time awards cover only tuition fees.

(2) Another scheme for men and women with qualifications similar to those already mentioned is the *Business Training Scheme*. This takes the form of a General Business Course at a selected technical or commercial college, followed normally by a Specialised Business Course. The latter courses are run by firms or recognised organisations. Again the form of assistance is a monetary grant (including an allowance for wife and first child) subject to a means test as in the Further Education and Training Scheme.

4. INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

(a) *Trade Unions*.—Trade Unions have existed in Britain for more than 200 years. Although they originated in diverse circumstances, and therefore vary considerably in size, structure and constitution, they all have the fundamental purpose of improving the status and the terms of employment of their members.

Some of the Unions cater for a single craft or group of crafts (although industrial evolution has occasionally resulted in their members becoming employed in a variety of industries) ; others, generally speaking the larger unions, cover all grades and classes of workpeople in a particular industry or range of industries. In the case of the large general workers' unions, the range of industries covered is very wide.

Each Union is an autonomous body with its own organisation, the basis of which is the local *Branch* or *Lodge*. The Branch elects officers and committees and discusses all matters which can be dealt with from a local standpoint. Wider questions are sent forward for the attention of the Union's *District* or *National* bodies, who are also responsible for deciding the policy of the Union and any alterations to its rules.

The majority of Unions have *workshop representatives*, whose functions include those of (a) collecting their fellow members' subscriptions, and (b) informing the local Branch of any alleged encroachment upon recognised trade union conditions. In certain industries, e.g., the Engineering Industry, the workshop representatives also participate in deputations to the management in connection with grievances ; and arrange "shop" meetings for the discussion of problems concerning the members of a particular factory or workshop.

Every member of a Union has a right to attend and take part in Branch meetings. Individuals are thus enabled to put forward suggestions regarding their conditions of work, as well as to raise questions concerning the activities and policy of the Union to which they belong.

The central organ of the trade union movement is the *Trades Union Congress* (in Scotland, the *Scottish Trades Union Congress*), the objects of which are "to promote the interests of all its affiliated organisations and generally to improve the economic and social conditions of the workers." The Standing Orders provide that in furtherance of these objects the General Council shall endeavour, among other things, to establish measures for the provision of :

- Social necessities and services ;
- Adequate participation by the workers in the control and management of public services and interests ;
- A legal maximum working week and a legal minimum wage for each industry or occupation ;
- Training for the unemployed ;
- Adequate housing accommodation ;
- Full educational possibilities ;
- Adequate compensation and maintenance for all forms of industrial accident and disease ; and
- Adequate pensions for the aged and infirm, widows and children.

The *Annual Conference* of delegates from Unions affiliated to the Congress settles its general policy for the ensuing year.

Relations with Government Departments have grown up with the development of a wide-ranging apparatus of *consultative* and *advisory councils*, which are taken into consultation on all matters affecting the interests of the working population.

(b) **Employers' Organisations.**—Associations of employers have been in existence for as long as, and in some cases for longer than, Trade Unions. They are generally organised on an "industry basis"—some being purely local in character and dealing with a section of an industry only, while others have a national scope and concern themselves with the whole field of a particular industry. In many of the principal industries there are *District* or *Regional Associations*, combined into *National Federations*.

The central organ of the employers' associations is the *British Employers Confederation*, which is the employers' counterpart of the Trades Union Congress. It was formed in 1919 to secure the co-operation of the employers' national federations in dealing with all questions arising between employers and their workpeople.

There are about 270 national or general federations and associations, and about 1,550 employers' organisations concerned with matters relating to the employment of labour. No precise statistics are available to indicate the extent of the industrial field which these organisations cover, but it has been estimated to be approximately eight million workers.

The British Employers Confederation has long been recognised as the principal means of consultation between Government Departments and representatives of the organised employers on matters widely affecting their interests. There is, in addition, much direct consultation between Government Departments and a particular industry as regards problems specially affecting that industry.

(c) **Works Committees.**—Works Committees in their present form first came into existence during World War I to meet the need (which arose from industrial changes due to the expansion of war production) for more systematic consultation between managements and workpeople on day-to-day problems in the factories which did not warrant trade union intervention.

The number of Works Committees increased considerably during the inter-war years, till by 1939 there were few large industrial undertakings of which they were not a part. A further increase took place during World War II, when, as a result of the widening basis of collaboration between managements and workpeople, many smaller concerns adopted the procedure.

The *composition* of the Committees varies from industry to industry and from establishment to establishment. In some cases the constitution, procedure and functions are formulated in or as a consequence of written agreements ; in others they have been constituted *ad hoc* and without formality, and custom and practice determine the manner in which questions are raised and discussion takes place.

Some Committees deal as a single unit with all kinds of questions ; others appoint separate or sub-committees to deal with particular subjects.

The *questions* studied by Works Committees may include matters relating to production, working conditions and welfare services, terms of employment, works discipline and general grievances.

(d) *Negotiating Machinery*.—The joint machinery for the regulation of terms and conditions of employment set up voluntarily by employers and workpeople through their respective associations has evolved according to the various needs and circumstances of the trades and industries concerned, and, as a result, it varies considerably in form.

In some cases, notably in the older and more important industries where the procedure for collective bargaining has been satisfactorily established for many years, there is no formal constitution. Instead the parties negotiate by custom and practice on questions such as wage rates, hours of work, overtime conditions, piece-work arrangements, holidays, employment of apprentices, etc., as and when they arise ; subject only to the accepted principles that there shall be no stoppage of work during negotiation and no negotiation during a strike.

In other cases Joint Standing Councils and Committees, known as *Joint Industrial Councils*, have been formed, each with a set formula for dealing with every problem at a different stage.

These Councils, of which there were over 100 in 1946, vary in size (the number of representatives may range from 12 to 70), in frequency of meetings, and in actual duties undertaken. A certain number are still simply negotiating bodies for fixing wage rates. The most advanced deal on a wide basis with such matters as unemployment, restoration of trade, research and the collection of statistics within the industry and from outside authorities, training and apprenticeship, workmen's compensation and transport facilities.

Contact between the Joint Industrial Councils and the Government is preserved by the practice of admitting an officer of the Ministry of Labour and National Service to meetings in the capacity of a liaison officer.

Differences which cannot be settled within the industry may be referred to a *conciliator* or *board of conciliation* appointed by the Ministry of Labour on the application either of the employers or of the workpeople ; or to an *arbitrator* appointed by the Ministry of Labour on the application of both parties to the dispute. They may also be referred to the *permanent and independent tribunal* set up by the Industrial Court Act of 1919.

No industry is bound to refer unsettled disputes to individual arbitrators or courts, although in practice a great many do so. A certain number, however, e.g., the railway industry, the quarrying industry, etc., prefer their own arbitration machinery designed to meet their own particular needs, and no pressure is brought to bear upon them to alter the practice.

The effectiveness of all methods of conciliation and arbitration depends upon the loyal acceptance by both sides concerned in a dispute of the decision arrived at by the arbitrator or tribunal to whom or which it is referred. Such acceptance has been the rule in all trades concerned since the methods were first devised.

5. AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS AND HOURS WORKED

The following table shows the average weekly *earnings*, including bonus and overtime, in manufacturing and certain other industries in the U.K. at July 1945 and January 1946, compared with October 1938. Administrative and clerical workers and other salaried persons have been excluded. The figures are subject to certain qualifications which are contained in a full account of the inquiry published in the Ministry of Labour Gazette for July 1946.

MONTH	All Operatives			Men (21 and over)		
	Earnings	Average hours worked	Percentage increase over 1938	Earnings	Average hours worked	Percentage increase over 1938
October 1938	<i>s.</i> 53 <i>d.</i> 3	46.5	—	<i>s.</i> 69 <i>d.</i> 0	47.7	—
July 1945 ..	96 1	47.4	80	121 4	49.7	76
January 1946	92 7	45.8	74	114 1	47.4	65
	Youths and Boys			Women (18 and over)		
	<i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>			<i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>		
October 1938	26 1	46.2	—	32 6	43.5	—
July 1945 ..	45 6	45.6	74	63 2	43.3	94
January 1946	43 4	44.1	66	59 10	42.3	84
	Girls			<i>The fact that the average percentage rise in the earnings of women is greater than that for men is due partly to the marked increase which took place during the war in the numbers of women engaged in work formerly undertaken by men.</i>		
	<i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>					
October 1938	18 6	44.6	—			
July 1945 ..	35 1	43.5	90			
January 1946	34 3	42.5	85			

It is estimated that the average level of full-time weekly rates of *wages*, exclusive of overtime, was 43 per cent higher in July 1945 and 39 per cent higher in January 1946, than in October 1938. The difference between that figure and the average increase of 80 per cent and 74 per cent in earnings shown above is due to (a) fuller employment with longer working hours and night-shifts; (b) extensions of payment by results and increased output of the workers; (c) changes in the proportions of men, boys, women and girls employed.

Cost of Living.—Taking 1st September 1939 as 100, the Cost of Living index was, on 1st July 1946, 132. On the same basis the estimated weekly wage rate at the same date was 161.

6. INDUSTRIAL WELFARE

(a) Legislation

Conditions in industrial establishments are largely governed by Acts of Parliament, and Statutory Rules and Orders made under their authority. These Acts (and Rules and Orders) lay down the minimum requirements that must be observed in factories, workshops, shipyards, mines, quarries, etc., for the safety, health and welfare of the persons who work in them.

(i) **Safety.**—Broadly speaking, the law takes the form of general requirements that some specified parts of machinery, and any other parts which can be seen to be, or which by experience have been proved to be, dangerous to the operator must be securely fenced, unless so constructed or in such a position as to be just as safe as though they were fenced. It also contains provisions for:

- (a) the protection of employees against general or special dangers arising from actual manufacturing or mining processes, e.g., the explosion of dusts or gases. (Detailed Codes of Regulations referring to a particular industry may supplement the law in this respect) ;
- (b) the prevention of unnecessary accidents. (This is effected on the one hand by the appointment of "safety officers" to specially dangerous industries ; and on the other by the rule that serious accidents must be notified to the Factory Inspector immediately they have taken place, so that investigations—aimed at removing the cause of the accident—can be set on foot without delay.)

(ii) **Health.**—Legal provisions for health may be divided roughly into three classes, namely :

- (a) *General Requirements.*—These concern such matters as the cleanliness of the factory, cubic space, lighting, heating, ventilation, the provision of washing facilities, first-aid arrangements, the supply of drinking water, etc.
- (b) *Special Requirements for particular industries or processes.*—These may be (i) measures of an engineering character framed in detail with reference to the particular machinery, plant or methods of production used in the particular industry ; (ii) measures of a medical character such as the routine medical examination of persons engaged in unhealthy processes ; or (iii) both. They may also extend to a prohibition on the use of a dangerous or unhealthy substance, if research has proved that the industry or process can be carried on with equal efficiency with a substitute.
- (c) *Medical Requirements.*—These include the appointment of official doctors called "Examining Surgeons" by the Chief Inspector of Factories. (Mines Medical Officers are appointed by the Chief Inspector of Mines.) The function of these doctors is to conduct the medical examinations required by law—that is to say : the periodic medical examinations for persons engaged in unhealthy processes ; the examination of young persons under 16 entering an industrial establishment for the first time ; and any re-examination of such young persons as may be found necessary.

(iii) **Hours of Employment.**—Legal restrictions on hours of work apply only to women and "young persons" (i.e., youths and girls no longer legally "children", but who have not yet reached 18 years of age). The working hours of men are as a general rule a matter for negotiation between the employers' and the workers' representatives.

The present provisions are based on a maximum of 48 hours in a week for women and young persons over 16, plus limited amounts of "overtime" beyond that figure in the year ; and a maximum of 44 hours in a week with no "overtime" for young persons under 16. These provisions have been designed not merely to limit the total number of hours worked in a day and in a week, but also to regulate the times of employment so as to avoid spells of continuous work and to secure (i) meal intervals in the day-time, (ii) night intervals, and (iii) a weekly rest day.

(b) **State Supervision**

The central authorities for industrial welfare are :

- (i) the Factory Department at the Ministry of Labour and National Service ; and
- (ii) the Mines and Quarries Department at the Ministry of Fuel and Power.

Executive responsibility lies with the Factory and Mines and Quarries Inspectorates. It is their duty firstly to ensure that all statutory regulations concerning industrial welfare are being observed ; and secondly, to urge employers to take every precaution (beyond those demanded by law) against accident and disease.

The State also exercises its influence in the following ways :

- (i) By advising the manufacturers of factory machinery. This frequently results in the incorporation of new safety features in the manufacturer's designs, in regard to such matters as the safety aspects of specifications for different categories of, for example, cranes, ropes and chains, electrical equipment, etc. Factory Inspectors are often invited to take part in the work of the Committee of the British Standards Institution.
- (ii) By setting up Committees to study a safety or health problem affecting a particular industry or group of industries. Arrangements are also frequently made for scientific research into industrial welfare problems through the Department of Scientific Research and other expert bodies.
- (iii) By practical demonstrations. These are given at the Safety, Health and Welfare Museum in London. Inspectors also give lectures and practical demonstrations to Joint Industrial Councils and Trade Union Branches and other industrial bodies or meetings both in the provinces and in London.
- (iv) By education. Departmental literature on industrial health and welfare matters is issued to all industrial establishments. This includes information and suggestions designed primarily for the managements, and posters designed primarily for the workers. Inspectors also contribute articles to medical and technical journals, and to magazines. Particular stress is laid on training workers and especially young workers in proper care, and Inspectors give advice on safety matters at technical schools and at Ministry of Labour and National Service Training Centres.

(c) **Special Aspects**

The idea of industrial welfare was conceived more than a hundred years ago, and since then has steadily broadened out to cover more and more aspects of industrial life. Certain of the more important innovations during recent or comparatively recent years are :

- (i) *Personnel Management*.—This has been authoritatively defined as "that part of the management function which is primarily concerned with the human relationship within an organisation" and thus includes the paying of due attention in the right spirit not only to physical arrangements for promoting the health, comfort and general well-being of the workers, but also to such matters as the selection, allocation to jobs, training and subsequent supervision and various personal problems which physically or mentally affect particular workers as individuals.

Personnel Managers may be trained either at a *two-year training course*, or (in the case of carefully selected candidates whose previous experience has afforded them suitable background for the training) at *short courses* arranged by the Ministry of Labour and National Service, in co-operation with the Joint University Council for Social Service and the Institute of Labour Management. In addition certain Universities and Technical Colleges hold *part-time refresher courses* of lectures for persons already employed as Personnel Managers.

By the beginning of 1944 the number of persons engaged in "personnel management" was about 6,000. To assist managements in maintaining and increasing the number and status of these officers a *Personnel Management Advisers Section* has been set up within the Factory Inspectorate. The staff of this Section have all had long experience of the work in factories where arrangements are known to be satisfactory.

- (ii) *Medical Supervision and Industrial Medicine*.—A widespread interest in the general health of industrial workers, as apart from specifically industrial ailments, has developed very considerably during the past six years. The

number of doctors employed whole-time by industrial firms for the purpose of exercising regular supervision over the health of their employees was 150 in 1945; the corresponding number of those employed part-time was 900; while the number of nurses employed in factory first-aid and rest rooms was nearly 8,000. In addition, arrangements had been made at some factories for the regular attendance of a dentist or a chiropodist or both for the convenience of the workers. Professional recognition of the importance of the question is manifest in the organisation of Committees and Conferences of doctors and others to discuss industrial health questions. Committees of this kind have already been convened at several large centres such as Birmingham, Manchester, and Leeds.

In addition several of the Universities have established or are establishing professorships and schools of Industrial Medicine; and one of the most important professional bodies has recently established a Diploma in Industrial Health.

- (iii) *Canteens and Communal Feeding*.—The number of canteens in industrial establishments has increased enormously during the past six years. Before 1939 the majority of workers preferred to go home for their midday meal, or to bring it to the factory for consumption, or else to go to a commercial eating house near the works. Then conditions, however, made the provision of canteens essential, and in 1940 the Factory (Canteens) Order was issued under the Defence Regulations empowering the Chief Inspector of Factories to direct that a canteen where hot meals could be purchased at low cost should be part of every factory, etc., with more than 250 employees. The canteens, which at present number about 11,600, provide, in addition to the hot meal at midday, meals for those working on the night shift, and light refreshments and tea and similar services at various times. In many cases they also serve as social centres for concerts, lectures and similar recreational pursuits.

Pit-head canteens at present number 935, of which 610 are providing main meals as well as packed meals (to take down the mine) and light refreshments.

In order that a high standard of canteen catering should be observed a *Factory Canteen Advisory Section* was set up in 1941 within the Factory Inspectorate to work in conjunction with the factory inspectors. This Section is staffed with persons trained in domestic science or nutrition and thoroughly experienced in large-scale catering.

The employees of smaller factories, where the setting-up of a separate canteen with a kitchen service would not have been reasonably practicable, were during the war, and to some extent still are, able to use the British Restaurants (established and run by the Local Authorities at the instigation of and with some financial assistance from the Central Government). In many cases arrangements were made for hot meals to be sent from these restaurants to the factories in special containers for consumption in the factory messroom.

- (iv) *Miscellaneous "outside welfare" arrangements*.—A special Department of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, with Regional and Local Welfare Officers at numerous centres throughout the country, was established in 1940 to advise and help workers who had been transferred in the interests of war production from factories at or near their homes to factories in other places with such matters as living accommodation, transport, feeding and recreation. This organisation still exists to promote welfare arrangements for workers returning to their old homes or seeking work elsewhere in the reconstruction or resettlement period.

Living Accommodation.—In view of the present acute housing shortage great difficulties are being experienced by many workers in securing houses or lodgings, and the welfare officers of the Ministry afford a good deal of help in this connection. Further, a number of the *special hostels* for industrial workers which were established at Government expense during the war are being kept in being, as also is a body known as *National Service Hostels Corporation*, set up during the war to manage such hostels under the auspices of the Ministry. Finally, a number of firms engaged on work of national importance are setting up hostels for their own workers, and there are plans for assisting them to get these completed and equipped speedily.

Financial Assistance for Transferred Workers.—In connection with the removal of workers from one place to another the Ministry of Labour and National Service makes various grants and allowances. These include :

- (i) free travelling warrants and in some cases a payment to meet other travelling expenses ;
- (ii) lodging allowances for married workers whose wives remain at home or unmarried workers with similar responsibilities for dependants remaining elsewhere ;
- (iii) " settling-in " grants to assist the worker in meeting initial expenses pending the first payment of wages ;
- (iv) financial assistance towards the removal of the worker's family ; and
- (v) grants in certain cases towards meeting outstanding liabilities of the worker in the area from which he has moved, e.g., for rent or for the storage of furniture.

Nurseries for Young Children of Married Workers.—During the war a large number of war-time nurseries were established under Government auspices at which women employed in industry could leave their children to be cared for during working hours. There is still a widespread need for nurseries of this kind, and Local Authorities are encouraged and assisted by the Government to continue the system as a permanent arrangement. There has also been considerable extension of nursery classes (attached to public elementary schools) for the somewhat older children.

Social and Recreational Clubs.—During the war local war workers' clubs were formed chiefly to provide social and recreational centres for transferred war workers. These were organised by local effort, in which industrial firms joined, and in many cases received financial assistance from the Government. At some of them, in addition to the usual facilities of a social club, baths and a laundry are provided. A number of these clubs are now continuing in being under the ægis of the Local Authorities as part of a wider scheme for developing community centres.

As regards physical recreation, considerable encouragement was given in war time, through the Central Council of Physical Recreation and in other ways, to the organisation of physical fitness classes at or near factories ; and of sports facilities and fixtures, recreational week-ends or week's camps, etc., for factory workers. Many of these camps were necessarily of a temporary or makeshift character, but both the physical fitness and the holiday camp movements are tending to spread.

VII. FINANCE

1. INTRODUCTION

The national income and output of the United Kingdom rose during the war both in money and in real terms. Despite this increase, the calls on the national resources for war purposes could not be met without cutting consumption, reducing capital

formation at home, disposing of overseas investments and increasing overseas liabilities.

War expenditure, adjusted to exclude indirect taxes, increased from £338 million in 1938 to £4,552 million in 1943, and stood at £4,147 million in 1945. Considered as a proportion of the net national product, war expenditure accounted for 7 per cent in 1938, 56 per cent in 1943, and 49 per cent in 1945.

At the same time, consumption fell from 88 per cent of the national product in 1938 to 56 per cent in 1943, and stood at 61 per cent in 1945. This includes both personal consumption and Government consumption, i.e., the cost of the ordinary peace-time services of Government. While consumers' expenditure at current prices rose between 1938 and 1945, personal consumption in real terms had by 1943 fallen 21 per cent below the pre-war level, and even in 1945 was still 14 per cent less than in 1938.

War expenditure and consumption, taken together, exceeded the net national product in each of the years 1940 to 1945. The deficit was made up by drawing on the national capital; thus a total disinvestment of £5,829 million was recorded during the years 1940-45. About one-fifth of this was accounted for by failure to maintain equipment and stocks at home, while the balance represented a loss of overseas assets or a piling-up of overseas liabilities.

The national resources were switched from a peace-time economy to a war economy in three main ways—by direct control, by rationing, etc., and by financial methods. The financial methods comprised direct and indirect taxation and voluntary savings. Revenue from direct and indirect taxes increased from £896 million in 1938-9 to £3,197 million in 1945-6.

2. THE BUDGET

During the financial year 1946-7 Government expenditure is estimated at £3,887 million, while revenue is estimated at £3,161 million. On the revenue side, Inland Revenue is estimated at £1,686 million, Customs and Excise will provide £1,187 million, and Motor Vehicle Duties £45 million, giving a total figure of £2,918 million for direct and indirect taxes.

It is estimated that in 1945 about 34 per cent of the total of private incomes was devoted to taxation or to compulsory contributions for social insurance or for war risks or war damage. This compares with 23 per cent in 1938.

3. INCOME TAX, SURTAX AND P.A.Y.E.

In the Supplementary Budget of October 1945 the standard rate of income tax, which was raised to 10s. in the pound during the war, was reduced to 9s. in the pound; this reduction took effect in April 1946. At the same time, an increase in allowances relieved at least two million persons from income tax. Surtax rates were increased, however. Income tax and surtax together take some 94 per cent of the largest incomes.

A single person earning £500 a year now pays £121 of it away in income tax; if he earns £1,000 he pays £318.

Since April 1944 income tax has been deducted from wages under a new system called "pay as you earn." The tax deducted from the wages paid in any week is related to the taxpayer's earnings during the current week. Under the old system the deduction of tax lagged behind the earnings on which the tax was assessed.

INCOME TAX AND SURTAX PAID BY PERSONS WITH DIFFERING INCOMES AND FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES						
Earned income before tax	Single persons		Married couples with no children		Married couples with two children	
	1938-9 rates	1946-7 rates	1938-9 rates	1946-7 rates	1938-9 rates	1946-7 rates
	£	£	£	£	£	£
£150	2	3	—	—	—	—
£350	24	62	8	31	—	4
£500	57	121	35	90	8	45
£1,000	167	318	145	286	112	241
£3,000	751	1,319	729	1,288	696	1,243
£10,000	4,134	6,544	4,112	6,513	4,079	6,468

DIRECT TAXATION OF PERSONAL INCOMES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM		
Ranges of income before tax	Percentages of aggregate of incomes paid in income tax and surtax	
	1938	1944
Under £250	0.2	2.5
£250 — £500	2.9	13.1
£500 — £1,000	11.1	26.6
£1,000 — £2,000	17.0	37.7
£2,000 — £10,000	28.9	53.0
£10,000 and over	50.6	80.6

4. POST-WAR CREDITS

Under the budget of April 1941 the earned income allowance and the personal allowance were reduced, thus imposing an additional income tax liability on the individual taxpayer, and these allowances were not restored until April 1946. The additional tax paid in this connection was treated as post-war credits; the total amount of these accumulated credits now exceeds £800 million. A small beginning has been made in repaying post-war credits, but general repayment is not being made as yet, since the credits constitute a major inflationary potential.

5. EXCESS PROFITS TAX

Since the beginning of the war an Excess Profits Tax has been levied on the increase in companies' profits in excess of the pre-war basic standard. This tax stood at 100 per cent from July 1940 to the end of 1945. Provision was made to refund 20 per cent of E.P.T. payments (less income tax at the standard rate) after the war, and repayment has already commenced; this refund must be spent on capital replacement.

Excess Profits Tax was reduced to 60 per cent as from 1st January 1946 and is to be repealed as from 31st December 1946.

6. INDIRECT TAXES

Indirect taxes have been increased since 1939, especially on drink and tobacco. Twenty cigarettes now cost 2s. 4d. in Britain; three-quarters of the price (1s. 9d.)

goes to the Exchequer in duty. The duty on beer accounts for well over half the price (7½d. out of 1s. a pint). A bottle of whisky costs 25s. 9d., of which 18s. 4½d. is duty. On tea 6d. duty is paid on a pound costing 2s. 10d.

7. PURCHASE TAX

In October 1940 the Purchase Tax was imposed ; this levied duties of one-third and one-sixth on the wholesale value of a very wide range of goods for civilian consumption. The budget of April 1942 increased the duty to two-thirds over a wide range of "luxury goods," and the budget of April 1943 further increased the duty on such goods to 100 per cent.

Certain reductions and remissions in the Purchase Tax were made in the budgets of October 1945 and April 1946.

8. PRICE CONTROL

Prices of the majority of foodstuffs are controlled by Maximum Price Orders, and heavy sentences are imposed for "black market" offences. The prices of the main foodstuffs are kept down by Government subsidies, which commenced in December 1939.

The cost of food subsidies in the financial year 1946-7 was estimated in April 1946 at £318.5 million, made up as follows : Bread, flour and oatmeal, £64 million ; eggs, fresh, frozen and dried, £40 million ; meat and livestock, £30 million ; milk, £27 million ; potatoes, £23 million ; sugar, £22 million ; cheese, £11.5 million ; other subsidies (including the National Milk Scheme), £101 million. The total estimate has subsequently been revised to £334 million.

Other consumer goods and services are covered by various Price Regulation Acts. Measures have also been taken to control the price of second-hand goods and goods on hire-purchase. The Central Price Regulation Committee is responsible for the administration of these Acts.

9. SAVINGS

Some £9,506 million were lent to the Government between the beginning of the war and mid-August 1945 ; of this total, small savings accounted for £3,652 million and large savings for £5,854 million. Savings have been maintained at a high level since the end of the war ; the Thanksgiving Weeks held between September and November 1945 raised £512 million.

There were some 245,000 Savings Groups in the United Kingdom in July 1946.

10. BANK OF ENGLAND

Under the *Bank of England Act*, 1946, the Bank of England was brought under public control, and its capital stock into public ownership, from 1st March 1946. Previous stockholders were compensated in Government stock, and the entire stock of the Bank is now held by the Treasury. The Governor, Deputy Governor and Directors are appointed by the Crown.

The Treasury has power to give directions to the Bank ; subject to such directions, the affairs of the Bank are managed by the Court of Directors.

The Act also deals with the relations of the Bank of England with other banks. Subject to certain provisions, the Bank of England is empowered to "request information from and make recommendations to bankers" and, with the authorisation of the Treasury, to "issue directions to any banker for the purpose of securing that effect is given to any such request or recommendation."

(For *Finance Corporations and Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act*, see EMPLOYMENT, page 43.)

VIII. FOOD AND FOOD PRODUCTION

1. FOOD POLICY

Britain's system of food control and rationing, so outstandingly successful in the war years 1939-45* in maintaining adequate nutrition and maximum productive effort, will be continued so long as food shortages persist.

The Ministry of Food continues as a permanent Department of Government and "the Government accept the responsibility for ensuring that adequate supplies of food necessary to health are available to all members of the public at reasonable prices and, in accordance with the recommendations of the United Nations' Conference on Food and Agriculture held at Hot Springs in 1943, the responsibility for raising the standard of nutrition of the people."

... "The Government will retain and adapt those controls which are necessary to the carrying out of such a policy. In regard to all those foods which play an important part in the nation's diet, the Government will undertake such responsibility in respect of procurement, distribution and sale as is necessary to ensure that adequate supplies are available at reasonable prices, and to implement such international agreements on commercial and commodity policy as may be concluded. The interest of the consumers will be protected; provision will be made for the needs of special classes; the position of the home producer in producing the goods required by the nation from home sources will be safeguarded; the trader who renders the community a necessary service will receive a fair reward. . . ."[†]

Britain's food policy and the world food crisis. In face of the world food crisis the Government has taken a number of measures to reduce the national consumption of cereals. (Measures to increase home production are noted later in this Section.)

An acute world shortage of fats, meat and sugar developed early in 1945, and United Kingdom consumption was cut, shortly after VE-Day, below the levels ruling during the European war. Where possible this was done by cutting supplies to food manufacturers but even so the domestic bacon and fat ration had to be cut.

A number of measures to economise cereals have been taken from the beginning of 1946. The wheat flour extraction rate was progressively raised from 80 per cent to 82½ per cent (24th February), to 85 per cent (10th March) and to 90 per cent (12th May).[‡] The rate was not higher at any time during the war when, despite all the difficulties, it was not necessary to exceed 85 per cent. These increases in the extraction rate seriously affected animal feed supplies. Other measures also reduced cereal consumption. During April, decisions were made to reduce the weight of the loaf from 2 lb. to 1½ lb. with no corresponding reduction in price, to reduce biscuit production by 25 per cent, to reduce allocations of sugar and fats for the manufacture of cake and flour confectionery so as to decrease flour usage, and to reduce the production of beer by 15 per cent as compared with 1944-5.

A publicity campaign was undertaken in order to encourage economy in the use of bread and flour, and catering establishments were forbidden to serve bread with a main meal unless specifically requested to do so. Later, bread was made a separate course at restaurant meals, so that anyone who takes bread with his soup may now have only one other dish at that meal.

* Fully described in "How Britain was Fed in Wartime," H.M.S.O., 1s., 1946.

[†] Minister of Food, House of Commons, 7th November 1945, see also R.616 Post-War Reconstruction in Britain, pp.17-20.

[‡] Reduced to 85 per cent 22nd September 1946.

On 21st July bread, flour and cakes were rationed for the first time, a step which had not been taken throughout the war, by the introduction of a differential rationing scheme, and other cereals and cereal products were added to the points rationing scheme.

Reduction of Stocks. Stocks of food and feeding stuffs in the United Kingdom under the control of the Ministry of Food, which were allowed to fall from 5.4 million tons at the end of June 1945 to 4.8 million tons at the end of December 1945, declined to less than 3.7 million tons at the end of June 1946. Most of these stocks are the "pipeline" supplying shops with the basic rations.

Britain has by these means been enabled to make substantial contributions towards meeting the urgent needs of the hungry countries. In the period from D-Day to the end of June 1946 nearly 2 million tons of foodstuffs were sent to Continental Europe from stocks in the United Kingdom and by diversion of supplies en route to the United Kingdom.

2. AGRICULTURE.

(a) *Britain's agriculture between wars : 1919-39.* In the years between the two wars, British agriculture was meeting—and then only with the assistance of imported raw materials—less than half the food requirements of the nation. The proportion of imported nutrients in the average British diet were :

Calories	64 per cent.
Protein	50 per cent.
Animal protein	40 per cent.
Calcium	25 per cent.
Iron	50 per cent.
Vitamin A	30 per cent.
Vitamin C	30 per cent.

This dependence on overseas products was part of the established economic system and during the years of peace there was no reason to alter it, since to develop agriculture at the expense of industry would have been to disorganise the whole economic life of the country, and it could not have been materially altered without raising the cost of food and prejudicing the export trade.

When war broke out in September 1939 the United Kingdom had 2½ million acres less land under cultivation, and the acreage under the plough had decreased by 4½ million acres, compared with 1918—and there were millions more people to feed than in 1918. Farmers had turned their attention to increasing their production of milk, eggs, vegetables and fruit at the expense of cereals, root crops and cheaper meats.

Between the years 1928 and 1938 there was a large increase in the number of livestock in the United Kingdom. Dairy cattle increased from 3.5 million to 3.8 million, other cattle from 4.5 million to 4.9 million, sheep from 24.6 million to 26.8 million, and fowls on agricultural holdings from 52.2 million to 69.1 million. In the same period the acreage under certain fruits and vegetables was increased by nearly 40 per cent.

The output of all other branches of agriculture continued to decrease during the period (except in the case of two crops, viz., wheat and sugar beet, towards the cultivation of which subsidies were paid), deficiencies being made up by larger imports.

Food supplies available as a result of home production were not only supple-

mented by large amounts of actual foodstuffs from abroad, they were also dependent to a considerable extent on the import of raw materials for agriculture, including animal feedingstuffs and fertilisers. It was reckoned that Britain grew three-quarters of the feedingstuffs consumed by the livestock of the country, including fresh grass and hay. It was estimated that the total available supplies of fertilisers in 1938 (excluding lime) were about 1½ million tons, of which about 50 per cent was derived from materials of foreign origin.

Note.—In 1946, total available supplies of fertilisers (excluding lime) were over 3 million tons.

(b) **Britain's agriculture in war time : 1939–45.** The dominant aim of Britain's agricultural production during the war was to increase the domestic output of food and feedingstuffs and so save shipping space. In the United Kingdom, unlike many other countries, there was very little scope for doing this by increasing the area of land used for crops or grazing, for almost all cultivable land was already in agricultural use. Reclamation of waste land played, therefore, only a comparatively minor part in the drive to increase agricultural output, and the area of land reclaimed and brought into cultivation was, in fact, more than offset by losses of farm land to military and other non-agricultural uses. The problem was, therefore, to increase the output of human food on the existing land of a country where production was already of an intensive character. This was done in two ways—(1) by increasing the actual physical yield of the land (largely by ploughing up grassland), and (2) by increasing the proportion of crops available for direct human consumption.

It has been estimated that the net output of British agriculture had by 1944 increased by at least 70 per cent in terms of calories. The outcome of this agricultural production programme, coupled with the control of food distribution, was that, by 1943, it had become possible to maintain our total food supplies at a level adequate to maintain health and war production at the same time reducing imports of food by 50 per cent, thus releasing an equivalent amount of shipping for other war purposes.

The production of bulky fodder crops was 8·9 million tons higher than before the war, all of which was required to replace the 6 million tons of concentrated feedingstuffs that we imported direct before the war and also the loss of a substantial part of the 2½ million tons of by-products (wheat offals and oil cake) that had been available to us.

USE OF AGRICULTURAL LAND IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1935–45 (Million acres)

June	Land under the plough			Permanent grassland	Total area under crops and grass
	Crops and fallow	Temporary grassland	Total		
average					
1935–38	9·0	4·2	13·2	18·7	31·9
1939	8·8	4·1	12·9	18·8	31·7
1944	14·5	4·7	19·3	11·7	31·0
1945*	13·8	5·3	19·2	11·8	31·0
% change 1935/38–45	+54	+26	+45	–37	–3

* 1946 figures are, respectively, 13·3, 5·7, 19·0, 12·0, 31·0.

ACREAGE UNDER CORN IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1939-45

(Million acres)

June	Wheat	Barley	Oats	Mixed Corn and Rye
1939	1.8	1.0	2.4	0.1
1943	3.5	1.8	3.7	0.5
1944	3.2	2.0	3.7	0.5
1945†	2.3	2.2	3.8	0.5
% increase 1939-45	28	120	58	400

† 1946 figures are, respectively, 2.1, 2.2, 3.6, 0.5.

ESTIMATED QUANTITY OF PRINCIPAL CROPS HARVESTED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1936/38-45

(Thousand tons)

	Wheat	Barley	Oats'	Potatoes	Sugar beet	Vegetables	Fruit
1936-38 (average)	1,651	765	1,940	4,873	2,741	2,370	452
1939	1,645	892	2,003	5,218	3,529	2,402	824
1942	2,567	1,446	3,553	9,393	3,923	3,690	749
1943	3,447	1,645	3,064	9,822	3,760	3,143	657
1944	3,138	1,752	2,953	9,096	3,267	3,422	666
1945	2,176	2,108	3,245	9,791	3,886	3,252	457
% change 1936/38-45	+32	+176	+67	+101	+42	+37	+1

[Source : Agricultural Departments]

(c) Britain's post-war agricultural policy. Return to long-term policy, 1945. By 1945, after six years of intensive cultivation, the strain on British agriculture and the fertility of the soil was beginning to tell. In the interests of an expanded acreage for grain and potatoes and of cutting the importation of feedingstuffs, the pig, poultry and sheep populations had been drastically reduced and beef production had seriously suffered. But the intensive production of cereal crops which in time would exhaust the soil could not be continued indefinitely, and after the 1944 harvest it was considered that greater weight must be given to the land's long-term needs and that a beginning must be made with restoring the country's livestock population, and returning to a better-balanced crop rotation.

With the end of hostilities in Europe and in view of the severe strain on limited dollar resources of continuing the import of meat products from North America, to be anticipated after the prospective cessation of Lend-Lease and Mutual Aid, it was provisionally agreed in 1945, in the interests of livestock recovery, to reduce tillage acreage in the United Kingdom in 1946 by 450,000 acres.

Britain's agriculture and the world food crisis, 1946. This decision had unfortunately already been carried into effect in regard to the autumn sowings of 1945 before the deterioration in the world wheat situation began to preoccupy the experts of national governments and the Combined Food Board. Final estimates of 1945 harvests in the northern hemisphere became available in December, and first estimates of those in the southern hemisphere began to come in February and March.

Immediate and drastic action had to be taken. Britain was not slow to make her contribution. Announcements of policy were made by the Ministers of Food and Agriculture in the House of Commons on 5th February 1946.

In order to increase the output of bread grains, Britain continued her war-time policy of land utilisation, crop production and disposal, with the effect of encouraging cereal production at the expense of livestock. The feeding of millable wheat to livestock has continued to be prohibited.

The following measures have been introduced since the beginning of 1946 :

- (i) Payment of a grant of £2 per acre in respect of the ploughing up for the 1946 and 1947 harvests of grassland which has been down for three years or longer.
- (ii) Increases in price of wheat from the 1946 and 1947 harvests (adjusted in 1946 to encourage farmers to market maximum quantities in August and September, and in 1947 designed to encourage the sowing of at least 2·5 million acres and as much more as is reasonably practicable).
- (iii) Reintroduction of directions to grow wheat for 1947 harvest in order to secure a minimum target of 2·5 million acres. This means a return to the position prevailing up to and including the 1945 harvest. Directions to grow potatoes and sugar beet have been maintained throughout.
- (iv) Drastic reductions in rations for livestock. Reduction in rations for pigs and poultry as from the 1st May from the basis of one-quarter of pre-war numbers to one-sixth of pre-war numbers and further to one-twelfth in July, August and September. (It had originally been intended to increase the rations as from 1st May to the basis of one-third of pre-war numbers.) Reductions in rations for pigs and poultry and a reduction in rations for cattle for the period October 1946 to April 1947 were announced on 4th June. Compared with the winter of 1945-6 these reductions will amount to cuts of about 40 per cent for dairy herds and 25 per cent for calves, and from 50 to 100 per cent for commercial pigs and poultry, according to size of holding. Domestic pigs and poultry will have their rations cut for the first time.

(d) **Britain's agriculture in 1946. Production :** The proportion of home-grown wheat used in the grist in 1939 was 12·9 per cent and in 1946 22·3 per cent. The sugar beet crop produced enough to cover our bare domestic ration.

Milk : The quantity of milk produced for sale in the United Kingdom in the year 1945-6 amounted to 1,447 million gallons, exceeding the previous year's record total by 53 million gallons. The trend towards winter milk production continues. Before the war milk was always in the shortest supply in December, but in December 1945, 20 per cent more milk was produced and sold than in December 1939. The demand for milk still greatly exceeds the available supply for the greater part of the year. The quantities sold through the National Milk Scheme and the Milk in Schools Scheme continue to increase, and are now responsible for nearly 20 per cent of the total liquid sales.

Livestock : The livestock population of the United Kingdom in June 1946 numbered 9,652,000 cattle, 20,412,000 sheep, 1,959,000 pigs, and 67,395,000 poultry. Dairy cattle had increased by 14 per cent between 1939 and 1946, and other cattle by 5 per cent, but sheep had fallen by 24 per cent, pigs by 55 per cent and poultry on agricultural holdings by 9 per cent.

Meat production in the United Kingdom in 1945 averaged 15,400 tons a week compared with 22,500 tons in 1939.

Administration (England and Wales) : Agricultural policy is carried out under the Minister, through County War Agricultural Executive Committees which include representatives of land owners, farmers and farm workers. An official of the Ministry links each Committee with Headquarters, and the Minister also has a personal liaison officer covering four or five counties. The Committees are represented in areas within the county by District Committees. The Committees were re-formed in 1946 and are to be made a permanent institution by legislation.

Financial aid, prices and markets, United Kingdom : (i) *Financial aid.* The degree of financial aid given to British farmers can only be understood in the light of the activities of the Ministry of Food, which buys the greater part of the output of British farmers either directly or through authorised agents, and which through various channels resells it to consumers. The prices charged to consumers are fixed in such a way as to implement the Government's policy of holding the cost of living steady at a comparatively low figure. These objectives are reconciled through the Ministry of Food's Trading Account, which buys food at one array of prices and resells at another and, in the main, lower array of prices. The loss on the Ministry of Food's Trading Account in respect of home produce approaches £200 million per annum, but this figure includes losses in respect of food welfare schemes such as milk in schools. Not the whole of the loss, even excluding welfare schemes, can be regarded as financial aid to British farmers, since consumers are obtaining their supplies at less than a reasonable estimate of cost.

In addition to losses on the Ministry of Food's Trading Account, a certain number of agricultural improvements subsidies are administered by the Agricultural Departments, amounting to some £10 million. These include a grant of £2 per acre on certain classes of grassland ploughed up, subsidies on hill sheep and hill cattle, grants up to 50 per cent towards the cost of field drainage and ditching schemes and farm water supplies, and livestock improvement subsidies. Agricultural lime is also supplied at half cost, and other classes of fertilisers are subject to a price stabilisation policy, with the resulting losses borne on the accounts of the Ministry of Supply (now Board of Trade).

The Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries also operates a Goods and Services Scheme whereby County Committees maintain gangs of agricultural labour for hire to farmers and run pools of agricultural machinery, and are thus able to provide a wide range of services covering ploughing, cultivating, threshing and numerous others. The Committees are also able to supply goods on credit.

(ii) *Prices and Markets :* The four aims of price control are (a) to give the farmers a reasonable return ; (b) to encourage production of crops required by the Government ; (c) to ensure the availability of a product at the time of year when it is especially needed (e.g., winter milk), and (d) to discourage wasteful forms of production (e.g., special fattened livestock). There are guaranteed prices and markets for all important farm products on the basis of adequate returns. These are fixed by the Government for each season, in some cases for longer periods, and the farmers are guaranteed an assured market. All fat stock and some farm crops, including potatoes, are bought by the Ministry of Food or its authorised buyers.

Milk is marketed through the Milk Marketing Boards for the Ministry of Food.

Labour: The Government has taken all practicable steps to maintain an adequate agricultural labour force.

The call-up of agricultural workers for the Forces has been suspended and special action has been taken to secure the release of former agricultural workers. Of about 85,000 agricultural and horticultural workers in the Forces at the end of June 1945 nearly 70,000 had been released by the end of July 1946. The Women's Land Army has been kept in being and a Recruiting Campaign was launched earlier

in the year. The present strength of the Women's Land Army in England and Wales is 34,800. For the time being the Agricultural Labour Controls have been maintained. Under the Control of Engagement Order employers in other industries are not permitted to take on workers engaged in agriculture; the Essential Work Order has been retained for male employees of County War Agricultural Executive Committees.

The various war-time schemes for the provision of supplementary labour for the harvest are being maintained, including arrangements for assistance by H.M. Forces and Volunteer School Camps. The war-time emergency measure by which school-children over twelve may be asked to give a limited amount of assistance during term time has been retained for 1946.

Finally, a large volume of prisoner-of-war labour has been continued to be made available for agricultural work.

The total number of agricultural workers, excluding Women's Land Army and prisoner-of-war labour, recorded in the Agricultural Returns for England and Wales in June 1946 (Provisional Results) was :

(000)		The comparable figures for June 1939 were :	(000)	
Regular, male	478.6		Regular, male	471
„ female	59.6		„ female	40
Casual, male	81.5		Casual, male	63
„ female	49.6		„ female	33
Total	669.3		Total	607

Voluntary Effort : Agencies set up by the Ministry of Agriculture and numerous non-official organisations assist the public in the cultivation of small holdings. There are now over 1½ million allotments (as against about 800,000 before the war) growing vegetables in Britain.

Wages : The national minimum agricultural wage rates in England and Wales are (from July 1946) for men 80s., and for women (aged 21 and over) 60s. per week of 48 hours. In the case of casual and part-time workers, the rates are 1s. 8d. per hour for men and 1s. 3d. for women. The national minimum wage for men was raised to 70s. per week in March 1945. It was previously 65s. per week in December 1943, 60s. in 1942, and 48s. in 1940, while at the end of 1939, when the fixture of minimum rates was still solely in the discretion of the County Agricultural Wages Committees the average of the county minimum weekly rates of wages for ordinary adult male workers was 34s. 10d. For women workers of 18 and over the wage was raised in April 1946 to 50s. per week, the wage previously being 48s. per week from December 1943, and 45s. from June 1943. (Prior to the latter date minimum rates of wages for women were not uniformly fixed on a weekly basis.)

Mechanisation : Britain is one of the most highly mechanised countries in the world in proportion to agricultural acreage, and produces over five-sixths of her agricultural machinery. The number of tractors rose during the war by 300 per cent. 3,500 combine harvester threshers were employed on the 1946 harvest. An Agricultural Machinery Development Board and a National Institute of Agricultural Engineering (York) were set up in 1942.

Land Reclamation and Drainage : (i) *Achievements :* The estimated cost of land drainage schemes approved for State-aid up to 30th June 1946 was as follows :

Farm Drainage (since 1940)—over £9½ million.

Main Arterial Drainage (since 1937)—over £7 million.

Main Rivers (since 1930)—nearly £16 million.

During the year ended 30th June 1946 the value of schemes approved was as follows :

- Farm Drainage—over £1½ million.
- Main Arterial Drainage—nearly £½ million.
- Main Rivers—over £½ million.

(ii) *Rural Land Utilisation Officers* were appointed in 1943 for each of 11 regions, in pursuance of the Government's policy of preserving, where possible, productive agricultural land.

Scientific Research and Guidance : (i) *Organisations* : The Agricultural Research Council is the State Department responsible for fundamental research. In June 1941 the Agricultural Improvement Council was set up for the application of scientific investigation to farming practice, and in July 1944 it was established on a more permanent basis.

A National Agricultural Advisory Service was set up on 1st October 1946 under the *Agriculture (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, July 1944*.

Of recent years the War Agricultural Executive Committees have seen to the organisation and provision of technical advice to farmers in the counties ; before that the County Councils dealt with these matters. Specialist advice has been provided by the Provincial Advisory Centres attached to universities and agricultural colleges.

It is now intended to have a national organisation co-ordinated and directed from headquarters. Advice on agricultural economics will continue to be provided by staffs attached to universities and colleges, and veterinary investigation offices will come under the veterinary service of the Ministry. Apart from this, the national service will include all those concerned with advisory work to farmers at the Provincial Centres and in the counties. This will facilitate general direction and guidance, stimulation of activity, securing of greater uniformity in the work, and co-ordination of specialist and general advisory activities. The work of the W.A.E.C.s and the Advisory Service will be closely integrated with a view to the maximum efficiency of the industry.

The Poultry Advisory Service already established (which covers other small livestock as well as poultry) will be absorbed into the new Service.

A programme of experimental work is being drawn up under the guidance of the Agricultural Improvement Council for England and Wales, and steps are being taken to set up a series of experimental farms and horticultural stations throughout the country.

(ii) *A National Farm Survey of England and Wales* was carried out in 1941-3 to collect information of all kinds from every farm of five acres and over. The results are summarised in a report published in August 1946 (H.M.S.O., 2s.).

(iii) *Fertilisers* : The bulk of nitrogenous fertilisers is home produced and suffices for most farmers' needs. Raw materials for phosphatic fertilisers are largely imported, while potassic fertilisers are almost exclusively of foreign origin.

(iv) *Seeds* : The National Institute of Agricultural Botany has established a special committee to organise and co-ordinate the home growing of seeds.

Veterinary Care : A scheme exists whereby a dairy farmer, on payment of a flat rate fee, can obtain from his veterinary surgeon regular examinations of his herd. The State provides, for herds in the scheme, a free laboratory service for diagnosis and free or inexpensive materials for treatment.

The Second Report of the Committee on Veterinary Education, recommending improved facilities for veterinary education, was presented in April 1944.

An Attested Herds Scheme was started in 1935 under which farmers can obtain a certificate officially certifying their herds as free from tuberculosis. To qualify for such a certificate a herd must have passed three successive tuberculin tests, the

last an "official" test. Attested herds are subject to periodical tests to check that infection has not been reintroduced.

At the end of June 1946 there were 15,824 attested herds in England and Wales and 6,651 in Scotland.

The principal quality milks are "Accredited" and "Tuberculin Tested." The main conditions governing their production require producers to obtain a licence and to satisfy the licensing authority—

- (a) by the production of a Veterinary Surgeon's certificate as to the general health of their herds;
- (b) as to the arrangements for producing milk, including the suitability and cleanliness of buildings and milking arrangements; and
- (c) as to the cleanliness of their milk as judged by laboratory tests.

Every animal in a "T.T." herd must be certified as having undergone the tuberculin test and any reactor as having been removed from the herd; subsequent tests are made at six-monthly intervals.

"Accredited" herds, the milk from which is subject to heat treatment before sale to the consumer, must be inspected at least once a year; where the milk is not so treated, the herds should be inspected every three months unless they are also attested, in which case an inspection should be made every six months.

The encouragement to farmers to participate in the above Quality Milk Schemes is provided by the premiums payable. These are 1d. per gallon on all milk sold from attested herds, and for "Accredited" and "T.T." 1½d. and 4d. per gallon respectively.

The following figures show the increase in the total number of herds in receipt of quality premiums:

				1st April 1939.	1st April 1946.
Accredited	23,500	22,400
Tuberculin Tested	2,100	3,700
Attested only	1,400	6,200
				<hr/> 27,000	<hr/> 32,300

SCOTLAND

Administration is one of the responsibilities of the Secretary of State for Scotland, who controls food production through the Department of Agriculture. Scotland is divided into 41 Executive Committee districts.

Acres and Crops. Scottish acreage under crops has increased from 1,480,000 acres in 1939 to 1,953,000 acres in 1946, an increase of about 32 per cent. Approximately 44 per cent of the total crops and grass area in Scotland is now under crops.

Supplementary Labour. In 1945 the number of volunteers for harvesting was 55,550: fruit pickers, etc., 2,780, grain harvesters 6,670, potato pickers 46,100. Industry contributed 3,460 workers. There were 82 harvest hostels. Additional labour was provided by the Services—9,300 for the grain harvest and 11,000 for the potato harvest—and by Prisoners of War—14,700 for the grain harvest and 16,300 for the potato harvest.

Mechanisation. Scots farm tractor equipment has increased from a pre-war figure of 6,250 to over 23,000 in 1946.

Allotments in cultivation in 1946 number 54,000 as compared with some 20,000 before the war.

NORTHERN IRELAND

Farming is the largest single industry of Northern Ireland. The country is intensively cultivated in small family farms, though there is a tendency for both fields and farms to become gradually fewer and larger. There are over 90,000

agricultural holdings of over one acre, 70 per cent of the agricultural area being accounted for by farms of between 15 and 100 acres.

Administration in food production matters in Northern Ireland is carried out by the Northern Ireland Ministry of Agriculture under powers delegated by the Home Secretary. The Ministry also acts as agent for the Ministry of Food in the purchase and slaughter of all cattle and the supply to butchers of their rationed meat, and also buys on behalf of the Ministry of Food all eggs and milk, and controls the sale and processing of them.

Acreage and Crops. The main crops are oats and potatoes, with smaller areas of roots and kale, all chiefly used for livestock feeding. Flax is also grown.

The area of land under cultivation, excluding grass or hay, is 700,871 acres in 1946 compared with 470,828 acres in 1939, an increase of 49 per cent. Flax acreage at 35,778 has increased by 69 per cent since 1939. The potato acreage at 192,523 shows an increase of 67 per cent on 1939.

Produce. Mixed farming is customary and 85 per cent of the income of the farmers comes from the sale of livestock and livestock products. One quarter of the bacon produced in the United Kingdom comes from Northern Ireland and the poultry population of nearly 20 million considerably exceeds that of Scotland.

Agricultural produce is exported mainly to Great Britain. The chief exports are fat and store cattle, fat lambs, bacon, eggs, butter, grass seed, seed potatoes and apples. Canned foods and milk products are being produced and exported increasingly.

The export trade is facilitated by systems of collection, marketing, grading, packing and inspection enforced by law since 1924.

Mechanisation. The number of tractors in use increased twelve times between 1939 and 1944 and is now approximately 7,700. Many other modern agricultural machines are in regular use.

Allotments. There are about 4,500 allotments in Northern Ireland compared with about 1,500 in 1939.

3. FISHERIES

Vigorous steps have been taken to increase home fish supplies. The progress made since the end of the war towards restoring Britain's fishing industry by the release of men and boats called-up or requisitioned for war service and by the sweeping of minefields on fishing grounds is reflected in the increasing catches landed. Figures of wet fish caught in the first six months of 1946 show that catches have doubled compared with the first half of 1945 and are approaching those of 1938.

WET FISH CATCHES

1st $\frac{1}{2}$ year	England and Wales		Scotland		Great Britain	
	Weight (⁰ 000 cwt.)	Value (£ ⁰ 000)	Weight (⁰ 000 cwt.)	Value (£ ⁰ 000)	Weight (⁰ 000 cwt.)	Value (£ ⁰ 000)
1938	6,879	5,795	2,392	1,824	9,271	7,619
1945	2,053	6,751	1,456	2,952	3,509	9,703
1946	5,149	13,300	2,153	4,274	7,302	17,574

[Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries]

Even before the end of the war in Europe the Admiralty had released as many as could be spared of the requisitioned fishing vessels. At the end of the war releases

were accelerated and high priority given to the reconversion of vessels for fishing. The steam trawler fleet, which is responsible for the bulk of landings of British-caught fish, was thereby increased from 465 vessels in May 1945 to over 750 at the beginning of March 1946, compared with about double this number before the war. By April 1946 about 30 trawlers were being returned to fishing each month.

Block releases of fishermen on naval service and other measures have provided crews to man these vessels. Landing accommodation at ports has been improved and other steps taken to ensure the fullest use of available vessels.

By the middle of May 1945 the Admiralty had opened to fishermen 20,000 square miles of the North Sea, including the Dogger Bank, with the result that British fish landings shortly rose to 50 per cent of pre-war from a war-time level of less than 30 per cent. A special effort was made in the late summer of 1945 to clear the East Anglian herring grounds in time for the autumn herring season.

Whaling. Apart from aiding fishing proper the Government took steps to organise whaling in the Antarctic during the 1945-6 season to secure additional supplies of oils and fats. Special efforts were made to dispatch floating factories to the Antarctic and the season was extended. Whaling was suspended during the war.

The *Inshore Fishing Industry Act*, (*) passed on 10th December 1945, gives financial encouragement to inshore fishermen similar to that already extended to fishermen in the herring industry by the *Herring Industry Act*, 1944.

The *Inshore Fishing Industry Act* empowers the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland to assist financially persons engaged in the inshore fishing industry or desiring to engage therein, in particular former inshore fishermen and ex-Servicemen.

Assistance may be given in connection with the acquisition of boats and equipment, or the improvement or reconditioning of such boats or equipment, and may be given by way of loan or, in case of need, by grant, or partly by loan and partly by grant.

Post-War Fishing Research. The Ministers responsible for fisheries in Great Britain announced on 14th December 1945 the setting-up of a Committee to make recommendations on post-war fishery research and the future work of the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea, when reconstituted.

IX. FORESTRY

"The Government consider that well-planned afforestation represents a sound national investment . . ." The Minister of Agriculture, 30.11.45.

The *Forestry Commission* was appointed under the *Forestry Act*, 1919, its main duties being to improve the country's woodlands, and to acquire land and plant it, so as to ensure an adequate supply of timber against a national emergency. The following facts and figures give a brief summary of the Forestry Commission's work between the wars. An extensive Forest Estate comprising 1,144,000 acres (including Crown woodlands) had been acquired, of which 714,000 had been classified as plantable. There were under woodlands and plantations 434,000 acres, of which 361,000 acres (excluding replacements of less than 8,000 acres) had been planted, the remainder having been acquired by purchase, or by transfer from other Government Departments. In addition there were 59,000 acres classified as agricultural land, of which 16,000 acres were in forest workers' holdings, and 43,000 acres in farms. The area under nurseries was 1,000 acres.

(*) The inshore fishing industry means "the business of catching and landing in Great Britain fish, including shell fish, found in the sea, by means of fishing boats not exceeding 70 feet in length and not exceeding 50 tons gross tonnage."

During the first decade (1919-29) 310,230 acres of plantable land were acquired, while 130,760 acres of conifers and 7,511 acres of hardwoods were planted. The number of forest workers' holdings established was 618 in the first decade, and 853 in the second, total 1,471. In addition, three National Forest Parks were established.

The Second World War.—Plans worked out before the war were put into operation immediately hostilities began. The Commission's organisation was divided into two main sections, namely, the Timber Supply Department, working under the Timber Controller in the Ministry of Supply, and the Forest Management Department, dealing with the normal activities of the Commission. This arrangement continued until 1st February 1941, when by Order in Council, which took the form of a new Defence Regulation (No. 67a) the responsibilities of the Commission in respect of timber supply were transferred to the Ministry of Supply.

In the 17 months which had elapsed since the outbreak of war, employment in home timber production had been roughly trebled and the rate of production increased roughly fivefold. The most striking increase was in the production of mining timber which, relatively to sawn timber, requires less labour. Large orders had been placed for sawing machinery, transport and plant generally; considerable quantities had been delivered and were in operation.

The Newfoundland Forest Unit was brought over at the end of 1939 and beginning of 1940, and set to work in stands of timber which had been acquired beforehand. After the fall of France a number of Companies of Royal Engineers, British, Australian and New Zealand, were brought to England, equipped for timber production and rapidly set to work. At the same time arrangements were made for large-scale assistance from Canada: timber was acquired and camp sites were selected to accommodate a large number of Companies of the Canadian Forestry Corps, which began work in this country from the end of 1940 and onwards. Much attention was also paid to the development of output by the home-timber trade as regards labour, supplies of standing timber, and transport. As a result of all these activities the Commission was able to hand over to the newly formed Timber Production Department of the Ministry of Supply a well-organised, vigorous and expanding undertaking.

Reconstruction.—The Commission's war-time policy with regard to the forests committed to its charge was threefold: first, exploitation according to national needs; secondly, protection and maintenance of all plantations not likely to be felled; and, finally, planting to the extent that labour and other limiting factors permitted.

From the viewpoint of reconstruction, active attention was given to the provision of stocks of small trees for planting. Stocks of seedlings in 1944 were about 225 millions and of transplants 76 millions, and to cope with these numbers and also to provide space for the large sowing programme, it was necessary, as a first step, to enlarge the nursery area from 1,000 to 1,550 acres.

The Government, which is now pressing on with a large programme of new afforestation and also with the re-planting, bases its policy mainly on the *Reports of the Forestry Commission on Post-War Policy* (Cmds. 6447 and 6500).

Main Report.—Cmd. 6447, published June 1943, suggested that an area of five million acres of forest is required by Britain to ensure national safety and provide a reasonable insurance against future stringency in world supplies. It was estimated that five million acres of effective forest could be secured, as to three

million acres by the afforestation of bare ground and as to two million acres from existing woodlands by selecting those woodlands which are better suited for forestry than for any other national purpose. It was proposed that the two million acres should, so far as they are privately owned, be either dedicated by their owners to forestry or acquired by the State. Dedicated woodlands would be worked to an approved plan of operation, and in return the owner would receive State assistance equal to 25 per cent of the net expenditure up to the time when the woodlands were self-supporting. Loans would also be available.

It was proposed that the attainment of the five million acres be spread over 50 years, subject to amendment at periodic reviews of the forest and timber supply positions.

Two programmes were submitted—a "Desirable" programme and an "Intermediate" programme. The first made provision for planting 1,100,000 acres in the first post-war decade and 1,500,000 acres in the second decade. The "Intermediate" programme provided for planting 875,000 acres in the first decade.

Proposals were also submitted for the large-scale provision of housing required in connection with the State forests, for education and research, and for increasing the number of National Forest Parks. (See p. 115.)

The Report emphasises the importance of having a single Forest Authority.

Private Woodlands.—The supplementary Report, *Post-War Forest Policy, Private Woodlands* (Cmd. 6500), was published on the 27th January 1944, and proposed that owners of private woodlands who dedicate their land should be eligible for planting and maintenance grants. "Dedicated" woodland would have to be worked to a plan approved by the Forestry Authority and kept under skilled supervision.

Forestry Act, 1945.—This Act received the Royal Assent on 15th June 1945. Its main purpose is to prepare for the development of forestry by securing Ministerial responsibility for forestry policy and administration. Under the Act the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries and the Secretary of State for Scotland have become jointly responsible for forestry policy and for supervising the measures for its execution. The Forestry Commission has been retained as a single executive body responsible directly to Ministers for carrying out all silvicultural operations, including the training of foresters, research and the management of forest holdings, and generally for giving advice on forestry policy.

Government Policy.—On the 30th November 1945 the Minister of Agriculture, Mr. Tom Williams, made a statement on policy.

Replenishment of the Forestry Fund—£20 millions.—In order to press on with this urgent policy, said the Minister, "the Chancellor of the Exchequer is proposing to ask Parliament to replenish the Forestry Fund during the five financial years 1946-50 by a total sum of £20,000,000. . . ."

"This should provide for the afforestation of 365,000 acres (which is the first five-year quota of the Forestry Commissioners' 10-year plan), provide the additional land for future planting, for ancillary services, and where necessary provide modern up-to-date houses for workers in State forests."

Relation to Employment Policy.—"In carrying out this programme due regard will be given both in timing and location to the Government's general employment policy."

Private Woodlands.—" . . . it will be very desirable that the owners of private woodlands should play a full part . . ."

"The Government, therefore, accepts the dedication scheme propounded by the Forestry Commissioners. This scheme postulates a covenant of dedication whereby

the owner, in return for stated scales of State assistance, undertakes to manage and to continue to manage his woodlands in an approved way."

(On details of this scheme, the Minister referred to the *Forestry Commissioners' Supplementary Report*, Cmd. 6500. See above.)

The Minister indicated certain safeguards as to State acquisition where necessary.

"... the Government proposes to continue the war-time system of licensing timber fellings."

Research, etc.—"... To implement this large programme of forestry development it will be necessary to increase the facilities for education, training and research into all branches of the work, including timber utilisation.

"The Government will continue to establish and extend National Forest Parks as and when suitable opportunities occur."

Planning Ahead.—"... It is ... our intention to conduct a nation-wide survey within the first five-year period so that we shall be well prepared to decide ... well before the expiration of the five-year period, on preparations for the next five years ahead."

Work and Training in Forestry.—On 13th December 1945 Sir Roy Robinson, chairman and director-general of the Forestry Commission, stated that forestry was ready to absorb 5,000 skilled men immediately, and many more would be needed. The vocational training scheme would apply to men released from the armed forces and other work of national importance, including life on the land. Disabled men who may be considered fit for certain types of forestry may be admitted for training. For persons without forestry experience training would consist of one year on a selected forest estate.

Implementation of Policy.—On 26th January 1946 the Forestry Commissioners announced that to avoid delay in the current planting season, grants on the new scales as in Cmd. 6500 (see above) would be made available for satisfactory work done during the season 1945-6. The owner would have the chance of accepting 25 per cent, or he could take a planting grant of £7 10s. per acre, with a maintenance grant of 2s. 6d. per acre for the period of 15 years. In his Budget Speech of 9th April 1946 the Chancellor of the Exchequer allotted £2 million for the Forestry Commission. "The Forestry Commission to-day," said Mr. Dalton, "is the largest single landowner in England. It owns more than a million acres, and we intend during this Parliament steadily to increase this acreage. I will place £20 million, over the next five years, at the service of the Commission, which has already brought into being 750,000 acres of State forest. . . ." (See R.915, *Forestry in Britain*.)

X. HEALTH

I. VITAL STATISTICS

(For Births, Deaths and Marriages, see section on Population.)

"Once again, in spite of the worsening of living conditions, it is possible to record a year of improvement in the statistics which reflect the state of public health. Progress towards safe motherhood and healthier childhood continued. The death rates among mothers in childbirth, babies in their first year of life and children of all ages to five were the lowest ever recorded in England and Wales in war or in peace. So were the death rates from tuberculosis, diphtheria and typhoid fever, and the standardised death rates for both men and women."

(Minister of Health, 18th December 1945.)

ENGLAND AND WALES

Year	Maternal Mortality rate per 1,000 total births	Infant Mortality rate per 1,000 related live births	Stillbirth rate per 1,000 total births	Neonatal Mortality rate per 1,000 related live births
1938	2.97	53.0	38.0	28.0
1939	3.10	50.6	38.1	28.3
1940	2.60	56.8	37.2	29.6
1941	2.76	60.0	34.8	29.0
1942	2.47	50.6	33.2	27.2
1943	2.30	49.1	30.1	25.2
1944	1.92	45.4	27.7	24.5
1945	1.78	46.6	27.6	25.4

Infant Mortality during 1945 was more than 1 per 1,000 above the low record of 1944, while the stillbirth rate was the lowest ever recorded, being 0.1 below that of 1944.

2. PUBLIC MEDICAL SERVICES

The public health services in Britain not only incorporate all the sanitary provisions necessary for a civilised social life, but include a number of general and specialised services, aimed at creating a state of positive health throughout the nation, and available to every member of the public according to his need. Among these services are :

(1) The Maternity and Infant Welfare Service. The Service provides

Ante-natal care, which may be undertaken either by a general practitioner by arrangement with the Local Authorities and with or without the assistance of a midwife ; or by a midwife ; or at an ante-natal clinic ; or at a hospital. The number of ante-natal clinics in England and Wales at the end of 1944 was 1,941. Seventy-six per cent of the mothers who had babies during that year either attended these clinics or received ante-natal care through Local Authority arrangements with private practitioners.

Maternity care, which is undertaken in conjunction with Local Authorities either in maternity homes (public or private) ; or in the lying-in wards of municipal hospitals ; or by special arrangements with voluntary hospitals ; or in the home of the patient in charge of a midwife with the duty of calling in a doctor should complications in the case render this necessary. By the end of 1944 nearly 5,000 additional beds had been provided for maternity accommodation in hospitals, emergency homes, etc., since 1939.

Post-natal care, which may be undertaken either at ante-natal clinics ; or at infant welfare centres doing post-natal work ; or by general practitioners working by arrangement with the Local Authorities.

Health Visiting, which is carried on by a specially appointed (and specially trained) staff employed either by the Local Authorities or by voluntary organisations. The functions of Health Visitors are to supervise the health of the expectant or nursing mother ; to give instruction in infant hygiene ; and to give advice on and if necessary recommend medical treatment for children up to the age of five who are not attending school. During 1944 the number of first visits by health visitors to children under one year old was over 700,000, representing about 96 per cent of all registered live births. In addition, about 4,500,000 visits to children between the ages of one and five were made.

Infant Welfare, which is undertaken by health visitors and experienced medical officers at Infant Welfare Centres. Treatment for minor ailments is given at the Centres, and, where necessary, mothers are referred to their own doctors, or to a voluntary or municipal hospital. The Centres also provide milk and other foods and medicaments either free (for those who cannot afford to pay) or at very reduced prices. During 1944 531,492 babies were taken to Infant Welfare Centres for the first time—71 per cent of all registered live births. The Centres were also attended in the year by 731,291 children over one year old. The total number of Centres open at the end of the year was 3,932.

Additional provision for the health and welfare of mothers and young children has been made by the establishment of

Hospitals for sick and ailing children.

Homes or Residential Nurseries for healthy babies.

Day Nurseries where children under five years old may be left either while their parents are at work, or where, owing to home circumstances, such care is needed.

Child Guidance Clinics.

Home Helps Schemes.

Welfare Food Schemes (by which special foods are supplied to mothers and to children under five years old).

The total number of nurseries set up by Local Authorities which still remained open at the end of 1944 was just over 1,500. Residential nurseries for the reception of children under five years old remained in the early part of 1944 at 400, with room for about 13,000 children. In February 1945 there were 236 hostels for "difficult" children, sent by Local Authorities who wished to arrange for the treatment of maladjusted children away from their homes.

All the above services are available to the unmarried mother and her child, and she is given every encouragement to make use of them.

- (2) **The School Medical Service.** For details of this service, see under "Education : Health and Welfare of Schoolchildren."
- (3) **The Industrial Health Services.** For details of these services see under "Industrial Welfare : Medical Supervision and Industrial Health."
- (4) **The Control of Infectious Diseases.** The measures adopted for the prevention and control of infectious disease are based on three main principles, and a fourth of growing importance : (i) notification, (ii) isolation, (iii) supervision of contacts, and (iv) immunisation. Advances made in the practice of immunisation may be illustrated by the fact that between January 1941 (when stocks of an effective immunising agent were issued to Local Authorities free of

charge) and January 1946 between 55 and 60 per cent of the child population under 15 years old had been immunised against diphtheria, and both the incidence of the disease and the number of deaths attributed to it had decreased by more than 50 per cent—from 50,797 cases with 2,641 deaths in 1941 to 29,949 cases with 934 deaths in 1944. Considerable progress has also been made in the field of investigation, and the *Emergency Public Health Laboratory Service*, designed before the war by the Medical Research Council to fill the gaps in areas where laboratory facilities were known to be inadequate, has developed into a co-ordinated service in association with many other laboratories working in the same way. Twenty-three laboratories are included in the service, and 26 independent laboratories are associated with it.

- (5) **The Treatment of Socially Significant Diseases.** Detailed arrangements exist to deal with certain conditions and diseases which require specialised treatment both to alleviate the sufferings of the patients, and to protect the community as a whole. Such arrangements cover

Mental Disorder and Mental Deficiency

Tuberculosis

Venereal Diseases

and consist in the main of the provision of hospitals, treatment centres, sanatoria and clinics, where the patients can receive specialised medical treatment and suitable after-care. Considerable attention is also paid to preventive measures in the cases of venereal diseases and tuberculosis. One of the most important recent developments in this field has been the introduction of mass radiography as a means of early diagnosis of tuberculosis, and the number of persons so examined up to 31st March 1945 was 400,000. As a corollary to the introduction of mass radiography a scheme for the financial assistance of persons undergoing treatment was started, so that such persons and their dependants should be free from financial anxiety during the treatment period.

Other special arrangements aimed at the welfare of the individual rather than that of the community are made for cripples, blind persons, dumb persons, and deaf mutes. Arrangements for these people include not only medical treatment, but also the provision of special educational and technical training facilities, and general social welfare schemes designed to help them to take their place as normal members of the community.

3. THE HOSPITAL SERVICES

Hospitals are run under two separate and distinct systems, viz., as voluntary hospitals, and as municipal hospitals administered and managed by the Local Authorities.

- (1) **Voluntary Hospitals.** There are over 1,200 voluntary hospitals in Britain, including many of the largest and most famous general hospitals, as well as a number of smaller hospitals for the specialised services described in the previous section, and cottage hospitals. Cost of maintenance is met by voluntary subscription and donations, by endowment, and in a number of other ways, including patients' contributory schemes. Most of the medical work is done by well-known specialists without payment. Nursing is undertaken by a competent nursing staff. The proportion of nurses to patients is generally 1 : 3, but in special departments, such as the maternity and children's wards, a figure of 1 : 1 is aimed at. Patients are admitted on a doctor's recommendation either free of charge or at a cost commensurate to their income. Some voluntary hospitals have private wards for "paying patients."
- (2) **Municipal Hospitals.** There are over 560 municipal hospitals in Britain, providing two-thirds of the hospital accommodation of the country. Cost

of maintenance is met almost entirely from State grants and local rates, though every Local Authority is obliged by law to recover a proportion of the costs of care and medical treatment from the patients themselves, unless the patient is a member of a contributory scheme. Most of the medical work is done by a resident salaried staff, though some Local Authorities employ visiting consultants on a part-time "sessional" basis. The nursing is undertaken as in voluntary hospitals. Patients are admitted by right—that is to say, if they wish to enter the hospital, and there is a bed available for them, they must be admitted.

Both types of hospitals provide "out-patient" departments, where patients not requiring beds may be examined and treated free of charge or at a small cost.

The Emergency Hospital Scheme. During the second world war the voluntary and municipal systems were both co-ordinated and supplemented by the *Emergency Hospital Scheme*. The fundamental principles of this scheme were that the hospital authorities should remain responsible for the actual treatment of the sick and injured, whether suffering from the result of war operations or not, while the Ministry of Health took responsibility for organising existing facilities on a nation-wide scale, for finding additional accommodation and equipment where necessary, and for the cost of the treatment of air-raid casualties (for whose benefit the scheme was originally started) and other special classes of patients brought within the scheme from time to time.

The development of the scheme resulted in the abandonment of the all-purpose conception of a general hospital in favour of a pattern of interrelated hospitals so organised that the patient could be moved from one to another according to his needs.

In order to provide for the medical staffing of existing hospitals which required strengthening, and for the new hospitals and centres for specialised treatment started under the scheme, the *Emergency Medical Service* was formed, comprising a large number of practitioners of suitable qualifications and experience in all branches of medicine. These practitioners were in the employment of the Ministry of Health, though working under the direction of the authorities of any hospital to which they were assigned. The arrangements included mobile teams available to give specialist treatment to patients too ill to be transferred to the appropriate centre, and to supplement the resources of any related hospital which might be overburdened.

Special Centres started under the Scheme include :

20 orthopaedic centres for complicated cases, supplemented by 70 fracture departments A for less serious cases, 215 fracture departments B for "short-stay" or ambulance cases (these were situated in vulnerable areas), and more than 100 fracture clinics C providing out-patient treatment for discharged patients.

20 special centres for skin diseases.

12 " " " plastic surgery and jaw injuries.

14 " " " neurosis.

10 " " " chest injuries.

11 " " " head injuries.

4 " " " injuries of the spine.

3 " " " burns.

2 " " " selected Service cases suffering from rheumatism.

1 " " " trachoma.

1 " " " effort syndrome.

13 " " " children's diseases (London Centre).

7 " " " amputations (Ministry of Pensions Hospital).

In addition 400 dentists were enrolled for part-time or whole-time duty in hospitals, and up-to-date equipment was provided by the Ministry of Health for the establishment of new or the improvement of the existing dental services in hospitals belonging to the Emergency Scheme.

During 1944 certain additions were made to the classes of patient for whom the Scheme accepts responsibility, but in general the end of the war has resulted in a steady decrease in the Scheme's commitments. Reservations were 47,344 in December 1945, and 35,000 in May 1946. The Minister of Health has, however, stated (House of Commons, 23rd May 1946) that "no emergency hospitals are given up without first considering the probable future needs of the hospital services."

Rehabilitation. Considerable changes and developments have taken place in methods of treatment during the past six years. Passive physiotherapy, including heat, massage and electrotherapy, has largely given place to other and more positive aids based upon active movements by the patients themselves, e.g., gymnastic exercises, remedial games; and occupational therapy. Mental stimulus is provided by lectures, discussions, musical entertainments and books.

Fortnightly training courses first organised by the Ministry of Health in 1943, suspended just before D-Day and resumed in the autumn of 1944, had been attended by 250 doctors from 170 hospitals and 420 ancillary staff from 322 hospitals by the end of 1944. In addition 109 occupational therapists and 89 auxiliaries had been trained at the six-monthly training courses provided at the expense of the Ministry of Health (i) for selected persons with some knowledge of crafts, massage, anatomy, psychology, and similar subjects, and (ii) for inexperienced persons wishing to act as assistants to occupational therapists. Plans had also been prepared for the training as remedial gymnasts, of 150 ex-service physical training instructors on their release from the Services.

Equipment for occupational therapy and for gymnastics and games was issued on loan to over 400 hospitals. Fifty-eight hospitals had been provided by the Ministry of Health with prefabricated huts suitable for gymnasium or handicrafts, or, in many cases, large enough to accommodate both.

Blood Transfusion. By the end of 1944 the number of banks of whole blood maintained by the Blood Transfusion Service was 441, and reserves of plasma and serum numbered 1,456. By this date a scheme originally devised to meet the needs of war casualties had developed into an essential feature of the general hospital services of the country.

4. DOCTORS IN PUBLIC SERVICE

Doctors in public service may work as Medical Officers of Health or as salaried officials engaged on tuberculosis work, maternity and infant welfare, industrial welfare, in the school medical service and on the staffs of municipal hospitals. The majority of such doctors are engaged whole-time, are responsible for carrying on their duties to the relevant Local Authority and have only a small or, more often, no private practice.

In addition part-time public service is given by nearly 19,000 general practitioners (that is well over half and probably nearly three-quarters of the doctors practising in Britain in 1939) who undertake a certain amount of work under the National Health Insurance Scheme, in addition to their private practice. This work entails seeing and treating "insured patients" at the surgery or in their own homes, prescribing drugs, medicines and a limited class of medical and surgical appliances, and issuing medical certificates *all free of charge*. For this service, every panel doctor

receives a minimum capitation fee of 10s. 6d. per year from the Government. As a rule, no doctor may have more than 2,500 insured patients on his list, although for each assistant a doctor employs, he may add 1,500 patients.

Access to panel doctors is available to all insured persons earning less than £420 a year. All such persons can choose for their medical attendant any doctor on the local panel whose list has not reached the prescribed limit.

Allied to the panel doctor system is the Public Medical Services' system sponsored by the British Medical Association. This system is operated by societies of doctors, who agree to give medical practitioner services to weekly subscribers to a central fund.

A certain number of doctors also work in conjunction with Friendly or Mutual Aid Societies on an agreed capitation fee basis.

5. THE NEW NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

The main structure of the new National Health Service is set out in *The National Health Service Act*, 6th November 1946. The object of the Act is stated to be "to promote the establishment in England and Wales of a comprehensive service designed to secure improvement in the physical and mental health of the people of England and Wales and the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of illness; and for that purpose to provide or secure (free of charge except where any provision of the Act expressly provides for the making and recovery of charges) the effective provision of services in accordance with the provisions of the Act."

This object will be achieved by a number of far-reaching additions and alterations to the existing

(1) **Administrative Machinery.** The Minister of Health is to assume direct responsibility for (i) the provision on a national basis of all hospital and specialist services, (ii) the mental health functions now in the hands of the Board of Control (except for the quasi-judicial functions designed to safeguard the liberty of the patient), (iii) the conduct of research work into any matters relating to the prevention, diagnosis or treatment of illness or mental defect, (iv) a bacteriological service, which may include the provision of laboratories for the control of the spread of infectious diseases, and (v) a blood transfusion service. He is to assume *indirect* responsibility for the organisation and maintenance of Health Centres, the establishment and maintenance of general medical services and for the management of all other services.

The channels through which these responsibilities are to be discharged are :

- (i) for that part of the service to be reorganised on a new national or regional basis, i.e., the hospital and specialist service : *Regional Hospital Boards*, assisted by *Hospital Management Committees*.
- (ii) for that part of the service devoted to personal medical attention : *Executive Councils* in the area of every major Local Authority assisted by expert committees, e.g., the *Medical Practices Committee*, the *Dental Estimates Board*, the *Ophthalmic Services Committee*.
- (iii) for that part of the service hitherto organised by Local Authorities, and for the organisation of Health Centres : the *Councils of Counties* and *County Boroughs*, or (in very exceptional cases) *Joint Committees*—to be known as *Local Health Authorities*.

Finally, a *Central Health Services Council* is to be established to advise the Minister. *Standing Advisory Committees* may be appointed to advise on different aspects of the service.

- (2) **Preventive and Curative Services.** *Hospital and Specialist Services* are to cover consultant and hospital services of all kinds, including general and special hospitals, maternity accommodation, tuberculosis sanatoria, infectious diseases units, provision for the chronic sick, mental hospitals and mental deficiency units, accommodation for convalescence and medical rehabilitation, and all forms of specialised treatment. The assumption of control by the Minister of Health over these services is to result in the transfer of the rights and liabilities attached to them, including their premises, property and assets. General administration is to be in the hands of the *Regional Hospital Boards*, which are to be set up in specified areas to be determined as far as possible with the object of securing that hospital and specialist services are conveniently associated with a university having a school of medicine. The administrative functions of the Boards will cover the appointment of officers (senior officer appointments will be made on the recommendation of an expert Advisory Committee); the maintenance of premises; and the acquisition and maintenance of stores, furniture and equipment. The Boards are also to be responsible (after consultation with other interested Authorities) for the appointment of *Hospital Management Committees*, who are to be the local managing bodies for individual hospitals or small groups of hospitals.

("Teaching Hospitals," i.e., those designated by the Minister of Health as providing, or able to provide in the future, facilities for undergraduate and post-graduate clinical teaching, will *not* be under the control of the Regional Boards, but of their own separate Boards of Governors, to whom the greatest freedom of action compatible with their position as servants of the State will be extended. Particular attention will be paid to the fact that such hospitals are the centres of clinical teaching and technical experiment and innovation.

Medical and Dental Schools are to continue to be under the control—in London—of their own Governing Body; elsewhere of the Governing Bodies of Universities of which they form part.

"*Paying Beds*" and "*Paying Blocks*" are to be made available in hospitals for persons wishing for privacy, provided that the accommodation is not needed for non-paying patients on medical grounds.)

New *Health Centres* are to be established by Local Authorities to provide on premises technically equipped and staffed at public cost, facilities for (i) general medical and dental services, (ii) the special clinical services of the Local Health Authorities, and (iii) out-patient clinics for the specialist services.

General Practitioner Services, i.e., the general personal health care by doctors and dentists whom the patient chooses, are to be administered and managed by *Executive Councils*, established in the area of every Local Health Authority. *Doctors* already in practice are to be entitled to join the new service on the appointed day where they are practising at present. *Doctors* wishing to start practice after the appointed day will have to apply to a special *Medical Practices Committee*, so that a proper distribution of doctors throughout the country may be assured. Remuneration of doctors in the service may be partly by fixed salary and partly by capitation fee. *Dentists* are to work at the *Health Centres* on a whole-time or part-time basis, or in their own surgeries when they will be able to claim their fees from public funds. *Drugs, medicines, appliances* and so forth are as a normal rule to be issued to patients free of charge.

Local Government Services, e.g., maternity and child welfare, etc., are to be unified in the Councils of Counties or County Boroughs, or (in exceptional cases) in Joint Committees. The scope of these services is to be considerably extended.

- (3) **Financial Organisation.** The new services are to be financed partly from the Exchequer, partly from local rates, and partly from a proportion of National Insurance contributions. (See "National Insurance.") No charge is to be made to the public except for appliances, goods or other articles outside the usual scope of the service.

XI. HOUSING

1. WAR DAMAGE AND ARREARS OF BUILDING : 1939-45

Out of about 13 million houses in the United Kingdom at the outbreak of war in 1939 nearly 4½ millions, about 1 in 3, were damaged or destroyed by enemy action. The White Paper of Statistical Material presented during the Washington Negotiations (Cmd. 6707) records that 210,000 houses in the United Kingdom were totally destroyed and 250,000 were so badly damaged as to be rendered uninhabitable.

More serious than war damage in creating the acute post-war shortage of houses were the almost complete cessation of new building and the minimum level of normal repair and maintenance work in the war years.

War-time shortage of labour and materials, together with the pressing demands of essential construction work for war purposes, meant that the amount of house building possible in the war years was barely sufficient to cancel the losses by war damage. The number of houses completed between September 1939 and May 1945 (most of which were under construction on the day war broke out) did not exceed 200,000, of which 36,000 were in Scotland.

By 1938 the rate of building had reached 346,000 houses a year in England and Wales and 26,000 a year in Scotland. Calculated at this rate the war years put Great Britain nearly two million houses in arrears.

Immediate housing needs when the war in Europe ended were estimated at 1½ million dwellings.

2. HOUSING POLICY

The responsibility for the housing programme rests on the Minister of Health, and, in Scotland, the Secretary of State for Scotland. The Ministry of Supply and the Ministry of Works are "supply departments" to the housing programme.

In view of the serious shortage, the Government's policy is to meet greatest needs first, by concentrating on the building of houses to let at reasonable rents and allocating them to the families in greatest need. The local authorities are, therefore, the main instrument for carrying out the programme.

Private house-building can be carried out only under licence from the local authority and is restricted to houses having a superficial floor area of not more than 1,000 square feet and a maximum contract or selling price of £1,200 (£1,300 in London).

3. HOUSING PROGRESS SINCE THE WAR : APRIL 1945 - JULY 1946

During the period 31st March 1945 to 31st July 1946 accommodation was provided in Great Britain—by construction of new houses and by repair of damaged unoccupied houses and by requisitioning and conversion of existing houses—for a total of 202,097 families.

Repair and Conversion : In England and Wales only during the same 16 months' period, 92,882 unoccupied war-damaged dwellings were repaired and made fit for occupation, and 620,000 dwellings which were damaged during the war, but not so severely as to be unfit for occupation, were repaired. In addition, 3,467 temporary

huts were completed, and 23,391 family units of accommodation provided by converting existing houses.

Achievement by the end of the first year of peace is summarised in the following tables.

A. SUMMARY OF HOUSING PROGRESS up to 31st JULY 1946

	England and Wales	Scotland	Great Britain
<i>Completed Houses—</i>			
Permanent	16,748	3,279	20,027
Temporary	35,290	5,135	40,425
TOTAL	52,038	8,414	60,452
<i>Under Construction—</i>			
Permanent	116,380	18,220	134,600
Temporary	23,620	5,012	28,632
TOTAL	140,000	23,232	163,232
<i>Total Built or Building</i>	<i>192,038</i>	<i>31,646</i>	<i>223,684</i>
<i>Families Rehoused</i>	<i>191,997</i>	<i>10,100</i>	<i>202,097</i>
<i>Housing Labour Force*</i>	<i>521,800</i>	<i>45,550</i>	<i>567,350</i>

* Does not include German prisoners engaged on preparation of sites.

B. PERMANENT HOUSES BUILT OR BUILDING AT 31st JULY 1946

Division between Local Authorities and Private Enterprise†

No. of Houses	Local Authorities		Private Enterprise	
	Great Britain	England and Wales	Great Britain	England and Wales
Built ..	8,110	5,132 ⁽¹⁾	11,917	11,616 ⁽²⁾
Building ..	94,723	77,978 ⁽³⁾	39,877	38,402 ⁽⁴⁾

⁽¹⁾ Including 1,572 war-destroyed houses rebuilt.

⁽²⁾ Including 1,006 war-destroyed houses rebuilt.

⁽³⁾ Including 3,493 war-destroyed houses rebuilding.

⁽⁴⁾ Including 5,840 war-destroyed houses rebuilding.

† All temporary houses are erected by the Ministry of Works, see 4 (c) below.

4. STATE AID FOR HOUSING

(a) Subsidies

Subsidies are provided by the State towards the cost of houses built to let by local authorities under the *Housing (Financial and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, April 1946*. The corresponding Act applying to Scottish housing is the *Housing (Financial Provisions) (Scotland) Act, June 1946*.

The former Act provided for a General Standard Subsidy of £22 to which the Exchequer pays £16 10s. and the local authority £5 10s. per house per year for 60 years. For agricultural workers' houses there is a Special Subsidy of £28 10s., the Exchequer paying £25 10s. and the rates £3 (£1 10s. from the local authority and £1 10s. from the County Council) per house per year for 60 years. Another Special Subsidy, the same as that for agricultural workers' houses, is paid for houses in "poor areas" (where there is a population of low rate-paying capacity). There is also a graduated subsidy scale for blocks of flats on expensive sites, and for houses built on such sites as part of a "mixed development" of flats and houses. These subsidies are to be reconsidered by December 1946, and may be modified after 30th June 1947.

(b) Sites, Materials and Labour

Local authorities have power under the *Housing Act, 1936*, to acquire sites for housing, if necessary by compulsion. The *Acquisition of Land (Authorisation Procedure) Act, 1946*, provides specially simplified machinery for the compulsory acquisition of land for public purposes, where it is required as a matter of urgency.

The *Building Materials and Housing Act, 1945*, makes financial provision for bulk purchase by the Government of housing materials and components, including complete prefabricated houses. The Act enables the Treasury by means of advances from the Consolidated Fund to provide the Minister of Works with the necessary working capital for these purchases and also for the erection of houses and the preparation of sites on behalf of local authorities. The amount of advances outstanding at any time must not exceed £100,000,000. It is proposed to set up a Building Materials and Housing Fund, to which will be credited advances from the Consolidated Fund and receipts on account of the sale of materials, erection of houses and preparation of sites. For districts where the shortage of building labour is a special problem—notably rural and blitzed areas—there is provision for the Ministry of Works, at the request of the Ministry of Health, to employ organised labour direct. This means that the Government may become the contractor on behalf of the local authority and provide flying building squads particularly for the construction of certain forms of prefabricated houses that lend themselves to quick construction with unskilled labour.

To recruit the labour force needed immediately special early release from the Forces has been granted to building trade workers, a special register of workers with building experience has been compiled, and a special training scheme instituted.

The Apprenticeship Training Council set up in 1943 keeps under review the long-term labour needs of the industry and recommends to the Government measures to maintain the necessary flow of new entrants.

(c) Temporary housing

The temporary housing programme is being carried out under the *Housing (Temporary Accommodation) Acts, 1944 and 1945*. The 1944 Act provides for the manufacture and erection of temporary houses by the Ministry of Works on sites provided by local authorities. A sum of £200,000,000 has been voted by Parliament for this purpose. Local authorities are responsible for letting and collecting the rents of temporary houses and are normally required to pay to the Ministry of Health a fixed annual sum in respect of each house so long as it stands.

The second Act permits local authorities, as an emergency measure, to make limited use of public open space as temporary sites for houses.

Temporary houses are of the single storey, two-bedroom type. The parts are made in factories and assembled on the sites. These houses are smaller than the

permanent houses and are intended to last for ten years only. They have built-in labour-saving equipment and fittings, and must not be confused with the hutments erected in some badly blitzed areas in London to provide temporary shelter for the bombed-out.

5. CONTROL OF RENTS AND PRICES

Legislation has prevented the shortage of housing that inevitably arises from war conditions from leading to an excessive rise in rents—the *Rent and Mortgage Interest (Restrictions) Act, 1939*, provided protection for tenants of unfurnished dwellings below a certain rateable value by limiting the rent that can be charged and giving security of tenure so long as the rent is paid. Similar protection was given to anyone buying a house on mortgage. The 1939 Act is one of a series of similar Acts passed from 1915 onwards, the principal Act being the Act of 1920.

The rents paid for furnished accommodation are controlled by the *Rent of Furnished Houses Control (Scotland) Act, 1943*, and the *Furnished Houses (Rent Control) Act, 1946*. The latter Act applies to those districts in England and Wales in which the Minister of Health has by order directed that it shall have effect. These Acts provide for the control of rents of houses, or parts of houses, let furnished or with services without limitation by rateable value. Local tribunals appointed for the purpose determine the rents of furnished lettings in cases referred to them by either party or by the local authority. The first such tribunal in England and Wales was set up in London in June 1946.

The *Building Materials and Housing Act, December, 1945*, provided a further safeguard by (*inter alia*) limiting for a period of four years the *rent and purchase price* of any house constructed under licence granted for the purpose of a Regulation made under the *Emergency Powers (Defence) Acts, 1939 to 1945*, that is, in effect, any house built by private enterprise since the late war.

XII. INDUSTRY AND TRADE

1. INDUSTRIAL POLICY

(a) Nationalisation

(i) *Principles*.—The main considerations providing a *prima facie* case for nationalisation were outlined in a speech by the Lord President of the Council, Mr. Herbert Morrison, at Toronto, on 10th January 1946. These considerations are :

That the service concerned is a natural monopoly, like gas or electricity ; that it is a common service industry like gas or coal ; industries upon which the well-being of other industries is to some extent dependent. Or it is maybe a key industry . . . having a vital consequence to the general economic health of the country, such as iron and steel.

" In all this field of nationalisation we intend to uphold the right to adapt the form of ownership and management according to the circumstances of the case. We shall not be slavish in following a precise model.

" Generally speaking . . . we shall set up public corporations in charge of boards composed of men appointed because they are qualified to do a technical job with efficiency, imagination and enterprise in the public interest, namely from persons having had experience and having shown capacity in industrial, commercial or financial matters, science, administration or the organisation of workers. The

general basis of selection will be on the lines set out in the Coal Industry Nationalisation Bill. (This Bill became law 12th July 1946).

"It will be the fact that the great bulk of our industry will remain private enterprise industry. We shall seek to assist and encourage private enterprise to the solutions of its problems, and we shall spur it to greater effort in the cause of industrial and economic progress. . . ."

(ii) *Industries to be Nationalised*.—An earlier speech by Mr. Morrison (19.11.45) gave an outline of the industries and services to be brought under public ownership. They are : coal-mining, the electricity supply industry and the gas industry, inland transport, dock and harbour installations ; also the Bank of England and civil aviation. Nationalisation of the iron and steel trade is also under consideration.

The following legislation has received the Royal Assent or is in the course of passage through Parliament :

Bank of England Act, 1946. (14th February.)

Borrowing (Control and Guarantees) Act, 1946. (12th July.)

Coal Industry Nationalisation Act, 1946. (12th July.)

Civil Aviation Act, 1946. (1st August.)

The Cable and Wireless Bill had passed through the House of Commons and received its Second Reading in the House of Lords by the time Parliament rose for the summer recess.

The nationalisation of the iron and steel industry was discussed in Parliament on the 27th and 28th May 1946, and it was proposed that certain sections of the industry, beginning with iron ore and with those coke ovens which were omitted from the coal scheme, should be transferred to national ownership. No Bill has yet been drafted.

There is no single road to nationalisation (see extract from Mr. Morrison's speech above), the method used being that best suited to the particular industry, but the main broad method is to set up public corporations in charge of men specially qualified. A typical method to be studied is that of the *Coal Industry Nationalisation Act*. This provides for the establishment of a *National Coal Board*, which broadly is to have the exclusive right of working and getting the coal in Great Britain. It is to secure the efficient development of the coal-mining industry and to make supplies of coal available in quantities at prices which seem best calculated to further the public interest. The Board will be required to act on lines approved by the Minister of Fuel and Power in framing programmes of reorganisation or development. *Consumers Councils* for industrial and domestic coal are to be established. Compensation is provided for.

(b) *Redistribution of Industry (Development Areas)*.—See above under Employment, pp. 41-42.

(c) *Joint Production Committees*.—These committees were constituted in order to provide "arrangements for regular discussion between managements and properly elected representatives of the workpeople on matters in which they are mutually interested" (Minister of Labour and National Service, Mr. Bevin, 1940). Since 1940 Pit Production Committees, Shipyard Committees and committees for other industries, notably building and engineering, have been set up. The Government actively supported these movements, which under the impetus of war conditions developed on similar lines, though flexibility was accepted as being necessary and desirable. Each committee has between five and ten representatives of workers and management respectively, the former in some cases nominated by the local branch of the relevant Trade Union, in others by open ballot of all the workers concerned, or by other methods, according to the needs of the industry.

(d) **Tripartite Working Parties.**—To make our industries more competitive in the markets of the world and to provide the best goods at the cheapest prices consistent with good conditions in industry Working Parties have been set up in the cotton, pottery, hosiery, furniture, and boot and shoe industries, etc. They will examine and inquire into the various schemes and suggestions put forward for improvements of organisation, production and distribution methods, etc. The first two Working Party Reports—on Pottery and Cotton—were issued in May 1946.

"We desire to deal with all these problems upon the basis of a tripartite . . . partnership—employers, employees and the Government. In that partnership it will be the duty of the Government to emphasise at all times the national as distinct from the sectional interest and the consumer rather than the producer needs. . . . Each group will consist of three equal parts representative of employers, of Trade Unions and of the general public interest. . . . These groups will be able to appoint such technical working parties as they wish to deal with detail and will be expected to report at the earliest possible moment" (President of the Board of Trade, Sir S. Cripps, 9th September 1945).

2. EXPORTS AND IMPORTS

Before the second world war Britain—the world's largest market—with retained imports averaging during the period 1936–8 £866 million per annum—met about half the cost of imports by visible exports of merchandise. The remainder (except for a small adverse balance of £43 million) was covered by net income from shipping, investments and various services.

Approximately 60 per cent of imports came from foreign countries, the remaining 40 per cent coming from other members of the British Commonwealth and from the Colonies. Exports were roughly equally divided between foreign and British countries.

As a result of her stupendous war effort Britain lost a considerable amount of shipping, sold a large proportion of her overseas investments, deliberately cut her exports (to under one-third of pre-war volume) and in addition incurred vast external indebtedness.

To restore equilibrium in the balance of payments, it is estimated that an increase of visible exports (i.e., exports of produce and manufactures) to 175 per cent of pre-war volume must be achieved.

In consequence, the Government has laid emphasis upon the vital importance of the export trade.

Good progress has been made towards the achievement of the target figure :

The Expansion of Exports⁽¹⁾

Year		Volume Index of Exports (1938 = 100)	
1943	29
1944	31
1945	1st Quarter	..	33.1
	2nd Quarter	..	48.1
	3rd Quarter	..	46.2
	4th Quarter	..	54.6
1946	1st Quarter	..	84.0
	2nd Quarter	..	97.6
	3rd Quarter	..	103.7

(¹) Including relief and rehabilitation supplies to liberated countries.

Owing to fluctuations in the monthly figures, due to differences in the number of working days, special and annual holidays, etc., the quarterly averages given above provide the safest basis of comparison, but some monthly figures are sufficiently striking to merit separate mention, e.g., May and July 1946, when the volume of exports was 115 per cent and 120 per cent respectively of the 1938 monthly average volume.

A review of the first six months of 1946 shows encouraging progress, especially as it is in those industries on which Britain must mainly depend for success in achieving her export target of 175 per cent of pre-war volume (i.e., the manufacturing industries such as engineering, vehicle production, electrical goods, rayon, pottery and glass, cutlery, hardware, instruments, and chemicals) that the gains have been most marked.

Very tentative unofficial estimates, from such figures as are available, suggest that the cost of imports in 1946 may be in the neighbourhood of £1,300 million, with overseas military expenditure and assistance to other countries accounting for additional amounts of £300 and £100 million respectively.

Against this exports may well reach £900 million, and income from overseas investments, shipping, services, etc., may bring in a further £250 million, leaving an adverse balance in the neighbourhood of £550 million, although this figure will depend on the rate of exports being maintained and there being no substantial increase in the rate of imports.

The export figures for the first seven months of 1946 totalled £495·4 million (not including re-exports at £27·8 million) and with imports totalling £699·2 million showed an adverse balance of £176 million, compared with £456·1 million for the same period of 1945.

Manpower engaged on export has been steadily expanded and on 30th June 1946 stood at 1,326,000, as compared with 990,000 in 1938 and 417,000 on 30th June 1945. It is planned to reach a total of 1½ million by the end of 1946.

Principal Export Markets.—The following table shows the principal markets for exports in the second quarter of 1946, compared with the preceding quarter and with 1938 :

COUNTRY	2nd Qtr. 1946	1st Qtr. 1946	Order of Importance	
			1st Qtr. 1946	1938
	£ mill.	£ mill.		
1. British India	19.1	15.9	2	3
2. Union of South Africa ..	16.4	19.4	1	1
3. Australia	14.2	12.3	3	2
4. Denmark	12.6	6.0	9	10
5. France	10.5	8.7	4	11
6. Eire	9.5	8.5	5	7
7. United States of America	8.9	7.2	6	6
8. Netherlands	7.3	5.9	10	12
9. Canada	7.1	6.4	7	4
10. Belgium	6.6	6.0	8	17
11. Egypt	6.3	5.7	12	16
12. New Zealand	6.0	5.8	11	9

Regional Distribution of Imports and Exports, 1938 and 1946

AREA	<i>Imports</i>			<i>U.K. Exports</i>		
	Quarterly Average 1938	First Quarter 1946	Second Quarter 1946	Quarterly Average 1938	First Quarter 1946	Second Quarter 1946
France and Northern Europe	65.6	30.3	36.9	35.0	52.6	70.7
Rest of Europe	11.5	12.6	9.2	8.1	13.8	17.6
Africa	15.8	24.9	32.8	18.4	40.2	37.0
India and Western Asia	19.9	35.0	28.7	12.0	26.8	33.7
Rest of Asia	11.0	1.2	6.3	7.5	5.7	9.1
Oceania	30.2	34.2	39.3	14.5	18.3	20.4
North America	49.8	102.6	107.8	11.0	13.8	16.2
Central America and West Indies	8.7	12.5	23.5	2.6	3.3	3.6
South America	17.4	28.5	31.4	8.6	9.4	11.2
<i>Total, British countries</i>	92.9	145.9	154.3	58.7	95.9	104.2
<i>Total, Foreign countries</i>	137.0	135.9	161.6	59.0	88.0	115.3
TOTAL, ALL COUNTRIES	229.9	281.8	315.9	117.7	183.9	219.5

Retained Imports and U.K. Exports in 1946 (Summary)

CLASS	<i>Retained Imports</i>	<i>U.K. Exports</i>
	(Monthly average : first six months of 1946)	(Monthly average : first six months of 1946)
I. Food, Drink and Tobacco ..	£48,059,000	£5,765,000
II. Raw Materials and Articles mainly unmanufactured ..	£27,207,000	£2,681,000
III. Articles wholly or mainly manufactured	£17,808,000	£60,168,000
IV. Animals, not for food ..	£451,000	£306,000
V. Parcel Post	£1,918,000	£2,123,000
TOTAL, ALL CLASSES ..	£95,611,000	£71,040,000

3. HOME MARKET

Although the Government's policy is to lay stress on the export trade, there have also been substantial improvements in supplies of consumer goods for the home

market, as shown by the following percentage increases compared with the same periods in 1945 :

<i>Month</i>		<i>Quarter</i>	
<i>March 1946</i>		<i>January-March 1946</i>	
	%		%
Leather footwear	12	Gloves	24
Rubber footwear	358	Pedal Cycles	47
Wool cloth for clothing	22	Household electrical goods ..	530
Non-wool cloth for clothing ..	26	Radio batteries	58
Hand-knitting yarn	22	Domestic pottery	2
Utility furniture	260	Domestic cutlery	47
Prams and push-chairs	69	Razor blades	16
Mechanical lighters	15	Household brushes and brooms	34
		Toilet brushes	38
		Umbrellas	25
		Matches	11

4. RETAIL TRADE

The *Location of Retail Businesses Order, 1942*, was discontinued as from 1st January 1946, and at the same time the Register of Withdrawn Retail Traders was closed. The purpose of these two Controls had been to facilitate the re-entry into retail trade of persons on the Register and the resettlement in civil life of certain disabled persons. They were also intended as a check upon a spate of new entrants into retail trade, to the probable detriment not only of other traders but themselves. This withdrawal does not, however, apply to food businesses which still come under the *Food (Licensing of Retailers) Order, 1945*, and the *Food (Licensing of Establishments) Order, 1943*. It is also still necessary to obtain a licence to operate a footwear repair business.

5. CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

Though there had been co-operative societies previously, the Consumers' Co-operative Movement, as it is generally known, started effectively on 21st December 1844, when the 28 Equitable Pioneers of Rochdale opened a store with £28 capital in a back street called Toad Lane. The rent was 5s. a week, and with the balance they purchased their stock.

The movement in Great Britain had reached the following proportions by 1st January 1945. The figures given are for the complete year 1944 :

	<i>Retail Distribution</i>	<i>Wholesale Distribution and Production</i>
Number of Societies	1,125	148
Membership	9,110,000	30,000
	£	£
Sales	347,174,000	236,390,000
Salaries and Wages	39,788,000	13,131,000
Surplus	41,288,000	11,635,000
Share interest	6,497,000	838,000
Dividends on Sales	31,199,000	6,782,000
Total Assets	332,628,000	214,719,000

The bulk of the business in the second column was conducted by three societies, the Co-operative Wholesale Society Ltd., the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society Ltd., and the English and Scottish Joint Co-operative Wholesale Society Ltd. In considering the sales figures for both the retail and the wholesale and productive societies it should be borne in mind that the sales of the wholesale

societies are, in the main, made to the retail societies for resale to their members and that, in consequence, any aggregation of the figures would be misleading.

(Ministry of Labour Gazette, February 1946, compiled by Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies.)

The central guiding body is the Co-operative Union Ltd. acting through the Co-operative Congress and the National Executive and other Committees.

The Movement owns a Sunday newspaper, *Reynolds News*, with a circulation of approximately 500,000.

6. FEDERATION OF BRITISH INDUSTRIES

The Federation of British Industries was formed during the 1914-18 war to represent the interests of productive industry. It includes as members not only trade associations, but also individual firms. It speaks for industry on large issues of economic policy, though not on questions affecting rates of pay or conditions of labour, and renders advice and service to member firms on their own problems of taxation, transport, fuel economy, shipping, and overseas trade.

7. BRITISH EMPLOYERS' CONFEDERATION

The British Employers' Confederation deals with general labour questions on behalf of employers generally. Its membership consists of the Employers' Federations, which deal with labour questions in the various industries throughout the country. It is the counterpart of the Trades Union Congress, acting for employers as the latter does for employees. (See also p. 50.)

8. BRITISH EXPORT TRADE ORGANISATIONS

A new organisation, known as the British Export Trade Research Organisation, was formed early in 1945 under the auspices of several large industrial concerns. Its aim is the furtherance of British trade by export market research. Allied with it is a joint overseas advertising service called the *British Export Trade Advertising Corporation*. Both have the co-operation of the Board of Trade.

XIII. INLAND TRANSPORT

1. RAILWAYS

Organisation. Britain, with an area of 90,000 square miles, has the most intensive railway system in the world. Most of the country is served by the four main line railways—the Great Western, the London and North Eastern, the London Midland and Scottish, and the Southern. These companies have a total route mileage of about 20,000, and a total track mileage, including sidings, of about 50,000.

On 1st September 1939 the Government took control of these main line railways together with London Transport and other railways. The Railway Executive Committee was appointed by the Minister of War Transport (now Minister of Transport) to be his agent for the purpose of giving directions under the Control Order.

Main Line Railways

- (b) War Service of Staff. In 1939 581,400 people were employed by the "Big Four." Upwards of 110,000 served in the Armed Forces, the Merchant Navy and full-time Civil Defence, of whom approximately 102,000 have now returned to railway work. A further 100,000 served in the Home Guard, and

130,000 in A.R.P. By 1944 (latest available figures) 60,000 women were employed in men's jobs.

- (b) Damage. 482 locomotives, 13,314 passenger traffic vehicles and 16,132 freight traffic vehicles were damaged by enemy action. In addition there was, of course, much damage done to stations and permanent way, particularly in the South of England.
- (c) Passenger Traffic. The overall increase in 1945 of Passenger Traffic was 4.3 per cent on 1944 and 11.8 per cent on 1938. There was a considerable increase in the average length of journeys. While there was a decrease of about 24 per cent in loaded passenger train miles compared with 1938, passenger miles increased by 79 per cent as compared with 1939.

The latest figures of loaded passenger train miles are

	Run	Percentage	
		1945	1938-9
4 weeks ended 29th June 1946	16,318,471	+ 15.52	- 22.70

This means that the loaded passenger train mileage is nearly back to 80 per cent of pre-war.

- (d) Freight Traffic. Since the end of the war there has been a natural reduction in net ton miles, but it is still 35 per cent greater than in 1938, or, on average, nearly 16 millions more per day.
- (e) Reconstruction. Amenities withdrawn or curtailed during the war are being gradually reintroduced. These include cheap fares, restaurant cars, sleeping berths for the ordinary traveller, extra trains at holiday periods. The "Golden Arrow" began to run again on 15th April 1946. The "Big Four" on behalf of the Ministry of Transport are carrying out a programme of conversion from coal- to oil-burning locomotives. The number involved is Great : Western, 172 ; London and North Eastern, 450 ; London, Midland and Scottish, 485 ; Southern Railway, 110 = 1,217. Over and above this programme the Great Western undertook a year ago the conversion of 44 locomotives.

Further details of individual reconstruction programmes are :

G.W., 119 locomotives, 330 passenger vehicles, 2,734 goods wagons are being built in 1946. L.N.E., five-year plan for construction of 1,000 locomotives, 5,500 passenger vehicles, 70,000 goods wagons. L.M.S., 135 locomotives, 800 passenger vehicles (and the reconditioning of a further 2,600), 7,106 goods wagons, 500 road-rail containers have been ordered for 1946, together with one motor-vessel. Two steamers are expected to be ready for 1948. S.R., authorised for 1946 : coaches : steam 469, electric 299 ; goods wagons, 3,086.

2. ROADS

Private Cars. The basic ration of petrol, which was abolished in June 1942, was restored after three years, in June 1945. There was a small addition to the ration in September 1945, while in July 1946 it was increased by 50 per cent, giving an average of about 270 miles of motoring per month.

Road Passenger Vehicles during the middle period of the war were operating from 30 to 50 per cent more passenger miles. Since VE-Day a total of about 5,000,000 miles a week has been added to the regular scheduled bus services. In many parts of the country services are almost if not quite back to pre-war frequency.

Haulage. During the later stages of the war all movements by road of general merchandise for distances of over 60 miles were controlled by the Government

Road Haulage Organisation which was also the sole agency for movements by road of practically all Government traffic. The number of vehicles in regular use by the Organisation was 33,700. During 1945 traffic handled totalled 55,200,000 tons. This was 1,350,000 tons more than in 1944, the invasion year.

The agreements between the Government and the Road Haulage Operators under which the organisation was set up expired in August 1946.

3. CANALS

All the principal canals are now under the control of the Ministry of Transport. They are organised into six regions under the supervision of Regional Canal Committees appointed by the Minister. A Central Co-ordinating Committee meets in London monthly.

About 2,000 miles of canals and inland waterways are now open to traffic. Altogether 7,000 boats and barges are in use, carrying the heavy bulk traffic. The total freight carried is about 1,000,000 tons a month. Approximately half of it is coal, coke and other fuel.

4. LONDON TRANSPORT

The London Passenger Transport Board, generally known simply as London Transport, through its railway and road services, running on 3,093 miles of routes, provides transport for some 10,000,000 passengers every day.

War Service of Staff. London Transport employed 86,000 persons in 1939. Of these 22,580 served in the Armed Forces, Merchant Navy and full-time Civil Defence. About 17,000 have now (August 1946) returned to their old job. 40,000 men served in Home Guard Units of London Transport in addition to a substantial number in local units. 42,000 were trained in A.R.P. and 25,000 in fire-watching.

In 1945 165,000 women were employed in men's jobs, the bulk being conductresses.

Reconstruction. Sixty-five new route miles are either planned or already under construction. During the next two years it is proposed to buy 143 new cars and to have 82 old ones remodelled. Already the central buses are running over 1½ million more miles per week than in May 1945. Similar increased mileages are being run by trolley-buses, trams and the Underground.

XIV PHYSICAL PLANNING

1. TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING

The considerable history of town and country planning during the past six years can be split up roughly into the following main divisions, viz :

- (1) The original impetus given by the Barlow Report on the Location of Industry and the Distribution of the Industrial Population ; and the " follow-up " represented by the Scott Report on Land Utilisation in Rural Areas and the Uthwatt Report on Compensation and Betterment.
- (2) The Government's response to these three Reports.
- (3) The actual steps taken towards the replanning of towns and cities.

(1) THE THREE REPORTS

The Barlow Report. The Report of the Commission (Chairman : Sir Montague Barlow) on the Distribution of the Industrial Population was presented to Parliament in January 1940, and provided a starting point for a new conception of the planned use of land. Its recommendations for the redevelopment of congested urban

areas ; for the dispersal of industries and industrial populations from such areas ; and for the provision of a reasonable balance of industrial employment throughout the country set in clear perspective the requirements of a better condition of life and work for an industrial nation. Its presentation of the problem as both urgent and incapable of solution without the assumption of control by some central authority with a high degree of initiative and responsibility brought about a general acceptance of the principle of national (as opposed to local) planning and a recognition that this must be applied without delay and on as broad a basis as possible.

The immediate effects of the Report were seen in (i) the special mandate given to the Minister of Works and Planning to consider what machinery and legislation would be necessary for carrying out the reconstruction of town and countryside after the war, (ii) the authorisation extended to him to proceed with his preparatory work on the premise that national planning under a Central Authority would be part of the national policy, and (iii) the setting up of other expert committees to study two of the most important questions raised by the Report, viz., the effect of the main proposals upon rural areas and the problem of compensation and betterment.

The Scott Report. The Report of the Committee (Chairman : Lord Justice Scott) on Land Utilisation in Rural Areas was presented to Parliament in August 1942 after a detailed and wide ranging examination not only of the general effects upon the agricultural industry of a large increase of physical construction in the countryside, but also of the measures that were needed to revitalise the rural areas so that they might absorb a certain amount of urban encroachment without loss to their characteristic way of life. In general, the recommendations of the Scott Report were in line with the Barlow proposals, although their main emphasis was on the need for maintaining good agricultural land and preserving natural amenities ; and the majority of their proposals were directed to this end.

The Uthwatt Report. The Report of the Expert Committee (Chairman : Mr. Justice Uthwatt) on Compensation and Betterment was presented to Parliament in September 1942. After a most thorough investigation into the controversial issue between public and private ownership the Report reached the general conclusion that the only way out of the confusion produced by the existing practice of compensation and betterment was to bring all land affected by planning resolutions into a single ownership ; and made a number of proposals designed to bring this change about without undue dislocation of the national economy and way of life.

(2) **Government Response (1943-6).** The response by the Government to the Barlow, Scott and Uthwatt Reports has so far been manifested in

- (i) *The establishment of a Central Planning Authority.* This was effected by the passing of the *Ministry of Town and Country Planning Act, February 1943*, by which the central planning powers were transferred from the Ministry of Works and Buildings to a new Ministry charged with the duty of "ensuring consistency and continuity in the framing and execution of a national policy with respect to the use of the land." In planning history, the Act signalises the public recognition of the fact that control of land use is sufficiently essential to the welfare of the community to warrant a separate administration at a national level.
- (ii) *The extension of Interim Planning Control.* This was effected by the passing of the *Town and Country Planning (Interim Development) Act, July 1943*, which in the first place provided that any land not already covered by a planning scheme should from henceforth be deemed to be covered by a planning resolution (thus bringing all land in the country under interim planning control as recommended in the Uthwatt Report) : and in the second place strengthened the position of both the Local Authorities and the Minister in regard to interim development as a whole.

- (iii) *Suggestions of more effective methods for the control of land use.* These were contained in the *White Paper on the Control of Land Use* (Cmd. 6537), June 1944, which

listed the aims of future planning policy as : harmonising the claims of land for housing, industry, agriculture, national parks, roads and airfields ; redeveloping bombed and obsolete areas ; conserving good agricultural land ; preventing sporadic and unsightly building and " ribbon development " ; minimising the risk of road accidents ; avoiding the loss of time and traffic congestion due to large numbers of people travelling long distances to work ; eliminating the excessive cost of environmental and social services caused by bad layout ; and relieving " overcrowding " ; suggested that the power of public purchase of land should be facilitated and that development rights should be subject to a statutory restriction ; and dealt with the question of compensation and betterment.

[On this last point, the White Paper stated that though the Government accepted as substantially correct the Uthwatt Committee's analysis of the problems, certain serious practical difficulties would make it impossible to adopt in full the proposed solution contained in its Report. They therefore put forward for public discussion an alternative scheme, reserving to themselves the right to change or modify the scheme if this should seem desirable in the light of public opinion. The main provisions of the scheme were briefly :

that there should be complete control of the use to which land is put—such control to extend to all land, whether built on or not built on ; that when permission to develop or redevelop (which materially increases the value of the land) is given, the owner should pay a *betterment charge* of 80 per cent on the difference of value due to such permission ; that when permission to develop or redevelop is refused, the owner should be paid *fair compensation* for any loss of value that existed at 31st March 1939 ; and

that the payment of compensation *as a whole*, and the receipt of betterment charges *as a whole* should be brought into a single central account, so that Local Authorities should be left free to plan the development or redevelopment of their areas with a much greater degree of freedom from the hampering limitations of financial responsibility.]

- (iv) *The introduction of provisions for constructive as opposed to purely restrictive planning.* This was effected by the passing of the *Town and Country Planning Act, November 1944*, which, although it was in the main a Land Acquisition Act and the most important of its provisions were therefore directed to this end, also contained clauses concerning statutory planning as a whole.

The Act empowers Local Authorities to purchase by a simpler and more expeditious method than had hitherto been available to them ; (i) areas of " extensive war damage " and land adjacent thereto ; (ii) areas where, although there may not have been any extensive war damage, a similar need arises because there are conditions of bad layout and obsolete development—and in this case also powers can extend to adjacent land ; (iii) land required for the " re-location of population or industry " arising out of the redevelopment of war-damaged or obsolete areas ; and (iv) land required for securing " an appropriate balance of development," e.g., industrial development or community buildings in a town where the proportion of these in relation to other development is too low; the provision of public open spaces or playing fields, etc. The Act also provides for a heightened degree of collaboration between Local Planning Authorities of various kinds, and contains clauses amending the planning code in a number of important respects, e.g., agri-

cultural buildings, hitherto exempt, may now be made subject to the provisions of a planning scheme and thus come under Interim Development Control.

Certain specialised aspects of planning, e.g., safeguards for commons and open lands against compulsory acquisition are covered by provisions in the Act, but one of the keypoints in planning, i.e., the question of compensation and betterment, was left unsettled. At the time of passing the Act, it was found impossible to reach agreement on this vital but controversial issue; and it was therefore decided to set it aside for further discussion and consideration and to devote separate legislation to the conclusions finally reached. The Act therefore confined itself to making certain provisions for Exchequer assistance in the implementation of planning schemes—notably of those affecting war-damaged areas.

[Associated with Town and Country Planning Act, 1944, is the *Acquisition of Land (Authorisation Procedure) Act, 1946*, which in the first place provides “a uniform compulsory purchase order procedure for authorising Local Authorities, and certain Departments for specified purposes, to purchase land compulsorily for purposes covered by powers under the Town and Country Planning Act, 1944” and in the second place “for a temporary period a speedy procedure to authorise the proper authorities as specified to enter on and take possession of land in advance of purchase in *urgent cases* for purposes for which they could otherwise be authorised to purchase the land compulsorily.” Under the Act, Local Authorities are able to serve notice on a site and take possession within fourteen days.]

(3) **Replanning in Action.** No concrete results of replanning can as yet be recorded. Land development or redevelopment, the provision or revision of basic services, and the erection or demolition of buildings require not only legislation to make them possible, but a labour force, a wealth of raw materials and financial reserves not yet available in post-war Britain in sufficient strength or quantity. Certain essential preliminary measures however have been, and continue to be, taken. For example:

- (i) 181 *Joint Planning Committees* have been formed—membership including 1,045 of the total of 1,441 Local Authorities who have planning powers.
- (ii) 157 *Town Planning Schemes* have been approved.
- (iii) *Sites for 711,259 permanent and 118,055 temporary houses* have been designated for approval by the Ministry of Health.
- (iv) *Special planning consultants* have been appointed for three Government “development” areas—West Cumberland, South Wales, and Monmouthshire (excluding the Borough of Pembroke) and the North-East. These appointments were made with the concurrence of the relevant Local Planning Authorities and County Councils for the purpose of ensuring that any changes brought about by development under the *Distribution of Industry Act* “should conform with a general physical plan for the region based on a comprehensive survey of all the problems concerned.”
- (v) *Various Expert Committees* have been appointed to study, advise and report upon certain aspects of the existing or proposed planning provisions, viz: *The Central Advisory Committee on Estate Development and Management* which was appointed in June 1945 “to advise the Minister on any question relating to Estate Management and Estate Development of land acquired or appropriated for the purpose of the Town and Country Planning Acts, 1932 and 1944, which may be referred by the Minister to the Advisory Committee.”

The National Parks Committee, which was appointed in July 1945 to consider and comment on the proposals made in the Report on National Parks in England and Wales, which had recommended *inter alia* that areas in England and Wales covering about 3,600 square miles should be

selected as National Parks, to be administered by a central authority for the benefit of the community as a whole.

A *Sub-Committee* to consider and report on the questions of *Footpaths and Access to Mountains*, with particular reference to the prevention and maintenance of existing rights of way and to the provision, where required, of new rights of way, and of access for the public to mountain, moor, heath, down, cliff and common land is to be appointed by the Chairman of the National Parks Committee at the request (1946) of the Minister of Town and Country Planning.

The *Scottish National Parks Committee* appointed in January 1946 "to consider and report on the administrative, financial and other measures necessary for the provision of National Parks in Scotland on the lines recommended in the *Report of the Scottish National Parks Survey Committee*."

The *New Towns Committee*, which was jointly appointed by the Minister of Town and Country Planning and the Secretary of State for Scotland in October 1945 "to consider the general questions of the establishment, development, organisation and administration that will arise in the promotion of New Towns in furtherance of a policy of planned decentralisation from congested urban areas; and in accordance therewith to suggest guiding principles on which such Towns should be established and developed as self-contained and balanced communities for work and living." (This *Committee* published two interim Reports the recommendations of which were adopted in part in the New Towns Act, and a Final Report upon which no Government decision has yet been taken.)

The *Advisory Committee on Buildings of Special Architectural or Historic Interest*, which was appointed in October 1945 to advise the Minister on all matters connected with the administration of those sections of the 1944 Act concerned with the preservation of such buildings.

- (vi) *Government approval has been given to a programme of map production* which has been described as "the most comprehensive survey ever undertaken of the national life and resources of Great Britain." This programme includes :

The rapid publication (from existing material) of maps, partly of a provisional nature incorporating revision carried out during and immediately before the war, and depicting geographical and physical structure; land use, mining and mineral resources; industry; administrative areas; population; communication; public utility undertakings and other information, most of which has never previously been published or even collated.

The re-survey on a national basis of all built-up areas.

The overhaul, and recasting on a national basis, of large-scale plans outside built-up areas.

The survey of contours at a vertical interval of 25 feet.

Maps so far published in pursuance of this programme are :

The topographical *Base Map*, which serves as a standard underprint to all the other maps except one.

The *Population Density (1931) Map*, which represents a modification of a similar map published previously on a smaller scale.

The *Population of Urban Areas (1933) Map*, which shows the distribution of the urban population.

The *Administrative Areas Map*, which shows by various colours and tints the boundaries in England and Wales of the Administrative Counties;

County, Municipal and Metropolitan Boroughs ; and Urban and Rural Districts ; and in Scotland the boundaries of Counties, large and small Burghs and District Council Areas.

The Land Utilisation Map, which presents a generalised picture of the land use of Great Britain before the second world war and shows the response of farming to physical and economic controls.

The Types of Farming Map, which shows 17 main types in England and Wales, and five predominant types in Scotland divided into 13 sub-types.

The Coal and Iron Map, which shows the coalfields, distinguishing the exposed fields, concealed fields where the seams dip beneath younger rocks, fields not yet worked and iron fields. Generalised geological sections appear as insets.

The Iron and Steel Map, which also shows the coal and iron fields, and the location and capacity of all works, distinguishing Blast Furnaces and Steel Works of open hearth, and Bessemer and electric types. Coke ovens and limestone quarries are shown, those owned by the iron and steel industries being distinguished in both cases.

(vii) *Detailed Plans have been published* for many of Britain's largest conurbations and cities, viz. :

Greater London	Birkenhead	Liverpool
The County of London	Blackpool	Macclesfield
Clydeside	Bristol	Manchester
Merseyside	Canterbury	Norwich
	Coventry	Sheffield
The City of London	Durham	Southampton
Bath	Glasgow	Swindon

These plans cover such subjects as : the dispersal of the population ; roads and communications, including railways, docks, canals and airports ; industry ; housing ; public and quasi-public buildings, e.g., schools, churches, etc. ; public utility services ; open spaces ; and architecture and landscape. They make provision for the establishment of "New Towns" ; for industrial zoning according to the type of industry in question ; for ring routes to avoid traffic congestion in the centres of large towns, and for parkways to replace the old type of arterial road ; for at least seven acres of open space per thousand of the population ; and for a new low density of housing. In dealing with individual cities they are based on a conception of neighbourhood units of about 10,000 people, dovetailing into districts of about five neighbourhood units, which in their turn dovetail into the city as a whole. At each stage, they provide for the essentials (basic services, public recreational and educational buildings and institutions, open spaces and general amenity) to a well-ordered and complete community life. The plans also discuss the questions of administration, finance and time, stressing particularly that redevelopment on the proposed scale may take up to, and in some cases well over, 50 years.

All these plans are at present under discussion and examination by the public, by experts specially appointed for the purpose, by a number of Government Departments, and by the Local Authorities concerned. No definite conclusions have been reached except in the case of the Greater London plan, the main principles of which were officially endorsed by the Government on 5th March 1946.

(viii) *Proposals for the administrative machinery needed for the creation of the first two New Towns* have been put forward. These were contained in the Interim Reports of the New Towns Committee, and certain of them received official backing in the *New Towns Act* (1946) which in broad terms :

(1) Empowers the Minister of Town and Country planning and the Secretary of State for Scotland to make an order designating any area of land (which might include as its nucleus the area of an existing town) as the site of a proposed new town, if after consultation with the Local Authorities concerned they are satisfied that it is in the national interest that the land should be so developed.

(2) Authorises the Minister and the Secretary of State to establish Corporations for the development of new towns, once the site has been designated.

(3) Provides that the Minister and Secretary of State may by a Special Interim Development Order grant permission for the development of any land in the area or part of the area of a new town in accordance with proposals approved by him, and subject to such conditions (including conditions requiring details of any proposed development to be submitted to the interim development authority) as may be specified in such orders.

(4) Provides that every corporation may acquire, hold, manage or dispose of any land or other property as they consider expedient for securing the development of a new town in accordance with the proposals which the Minister has approved, and subject to the limitation that no freehold or lease exceeding 99 years may be granted, except with the consent of the Minister, who must be satisfied that there are exceptional circumstances rendering such disposal expedient.

(5) Provides that every corporation may provide water, electricity, gas, sewerage and other services but subject to the same control by Parliament as exists over other corporations. (It is intended that so far as possible the corporation should provide these services only where they cannot suitably be provided by existing statutory undertakers.)

(6) Lays down that every corporation shall be deemed a housing association within the meaning of the Housing Act, and moreover should receive in respect of each working-class house which it itself provides, i.e., not under an agreement with a Local Authority, the annual Exchequer contributions payable under the *Housing (Financial and Miscellaneous Provisions) Act*, 1946, to Local Authorities.

(7) Lays down that every corporation must from time to time submit to the Minister in accordance with any directions given by him in that behalf their proposals for the development of the New Town, and further shall submit an annual report to the Minister dealing generally with their operations, which reports shall be laid before each House of Parliament. Annual accounts must also be prepared and submitted to Parliament.

(8) Provides that when the purposes for which the corporation was established have been substantially achieved the Ministry may make an order dissolving such corporation and transferring its activities to a Local Authority.

The capital cost of developing a New Town area will be advanced from the Consolidated Fund to each corporation, who will be responsible for repayment on terms approved by the Treasury.

(ix) *Plans for the Social Structure of the proposed New Towns* have been drawn up. These were contained in the Final Report of the New Towns Committee, published in July 1946. Among the more important proposals made were :

- (1) Both new and extension towns are desirable. No uniform physical-social structure should be aimed at. Full latitude for variety and experiment should be allowed.
- (2) The optimum population for the town area should as a general rule be 30,000 to 50,000 ; but with a related district may be 60,000 to 80,000.
- (3) A balanced social composition should be aimed at. The various sections of national life, e.g., the industrial section, the administrative section, the professional section, the artistic section, should as far as possible be represented. Segregation by income group should be avoided.
- (4) The choice of site should be made in relation to nation-wide political, social, economic and strategic considerations. The interests of those who live in the surrounding towns and villages as well as those who are to populate the New Towns should be remembered.
- (5) Estimates of areas required for industry, main centre and general urban purposes should be made, and the position of these zones decided.
- (6) Grouping into neighbourhoods should arise naturally from topographical features, but neighbourhoods should not be closed communities ; each neighbourhood should have a centre with shops and public buildings.
- (7) The peripheral belt should be used in the main for agriculture ; machinery should be set up to relate production in green belt to local consumption and to promote co-operative services ; small holdings should be encouraged.
- (8) Water supply resources must be adequate for the final size of the town. Sewage disposal works require early consideration, and co-operation with adjacent authorities should be explored.
- (9) The road system must link conveniently with the network and will probably be of the radial and ring type. An internal bus service is essential. Facilities within reasonable distance for private, club and charter flying, and for gliding, will be desirable.
- (10) Facilities for factory industry, and for clerical administrative establishments should be provided, and premises should also be provided for local commercial businesses and professions.
- (11) Houses should be provided to meet all requirements. The proportion of types should correspond to the needs of families, single persons and old people. Communal amenities should receive due consideration.
- (12) The shops policy should take account of service to consumers, interests of shopkeepers and return on public capital invested. The number of shops should probably be between 1 to 100 and 1 to 150 with competition in each trade. All types of trading organisations should be admitted, and special attention should be given to the architecture of shopping centres.
- (13) Sites should be allocated in consultation with Local Authorities for public primary and secondary schools, special schools, and further education. Facilities should also be given for private schools, and if new universities are to be built, their location in New Towns should be considered.
- (14) Hospital and medical services must take account of regional considerations, and of special circumstances of New Towns. In Scotland combined hospitals are preferred.
- (15) Permanent buildings should be provided in advance of full demand. There should be buildings for theatre, music, and arts, and dance halls, also an adequate library service. Special attention should be paid to places of refreshment, including hotels and a variety of restaurants as

well as teashops and cafés. Licensed premises should vary in character and size. There should be arrangements for parks, public gardens, playing fields, and allotments. For children and young people, play-grounds and a variety of club facilities are required, and community centres should cater for all ages.

- (16) National church organisations should help in provision of buildings, the sites of which should be provided on non-profit terms.
- (17) Possibility of local broadcasting service should be examined. Outside advertising on buildings should be regularised under lease covenants, and hoardings and notice boards should be few and well designed. Encouragement should be given to local newspapers.
- (x) *The names of the first four proposed New Towns* have been announced. These are to be *Stevenage*—a small agricultural and residential town to the north of London, the *Crawley-Three Bridges* area of Sussex, *Hemel Hempstead*, Herts, and *Harlow*, Essex. Details of the proposed transformation of Stevenage were published in layout plans in May 1946. Plans for the Crawley-Three Bridges area will be drawn up by the Planning Consultant shortly to be appointed by the Minister of Town and Country Planning (10th July 1946).

2. HYDRO-ELECTRIC SCHEMES

The development of hydro-electric schemes plays an important part in town and country planning since upon its speed and efficiency the re-location of industry must to a great extent depend.

Scotland. Great progress in the development of these schemes has been made in Scotland by the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board which was appointed in 1943 under the *Hydro-Electric Development (Scotland) Act 1943*.

The Board's chief duties are to develop the water-power resources of the Highlands of Scotland, to distribute electricity to consumers outside the areas of other authorised electricity undertakers, and to supply electricity in bulk to authorised undertakers and large power users in the North and to the Central Electricity Board.

Early in 1944 the Board published their Development Schemes outlining 102 separate projects for the development of the hydro-electric resources of the Highlands and Islands of Scotland with a potential average output of approximately 6,274 million units of electricity per annum. Before work can be begun on any projects a Constructional Scheme is required, and three such schemes have been passed by Parliament and the work of construction has begun.

Particulars of these schemes are as follows :

Scheme		Generating Capacity Kilowatts	Estimated Average Annual Output	Estimated Cost
			Million Units	
No. 1—Loch Sloy Project	..	130,000	100	£4,000,000
Loch Morar Project	..	2,000	5	500,000
Lochalsh Project	..	4,000	7	
No. 2—Tummel-Garry Project	..	150,000	293	6,500,000
Gairloch Project	..	3,000	7	272,000
No. 3—Fannich Project	..	24,000	77	1,000,000

The output from the major Loch Sloy and Tummel-Garry Projects is primarily intended for supply to the Central Electricity Board to assist in meeting the heavy

industrial load in Central and Southern Scotland. The output from the Fannich Project is intended to meet the growing demand in the north-eastern part of the Board's area and will assist in meeting any demands which may arise in the event of industrial development in the Cromarty Firth area. All the projects will assist in the improvement of the amenities and the development of the areas concerned.

Seven distribution schemes prepared during 1945 will bring electricity to 141 towns, villages and hamlets in Lochalsh ; Morar ; Gairloch and Aultbea ; Bute, South Cowal and Great Cumbrae ; North Cowal ; Orkney (Mainland), and Skye. By midsummer 1946, another ten distribution schemes had been submitted to the Electricity Commissioners; these covered Lewis, Islay, North Uist, South Uist, Harris, Barra, Arran, Shetland (part of mainland), Lochinver and Ullapool and Loch Carron. The schemes for Arran and Loch Carron have received the Electricity Commissioners' approval.

Schemes of distribution are planned for Mull and Iona, Seil and Luing, Lochaber, North Sunderland and Ardnamurchan.

As an encouragement to the development of such schemes, the *Hydro-Electric Undertakings (Valuation for Rating) (Scotland) Act*, was passed in June 1945 to modify the method of ascertaining the rateable values of hydro-electric generating works so as to relieve hydro-electric undertakings in certain circumstances of part of the local rates for which they would otherwise be liable.

England. The Severn Barrage Scheme is the only large-scale hydro-electric development scheme at present under consideration in England. This scheme originated from the conclusions (published in a Report in 1933) of the Severn Barrage Committee of the Economic Advisory Council, which was appointed in 1925 to examine the possibility of using the tidal water of the Severn to generate electricity.

In 1943 a small technical body was appointed " to review the conclusions of the Severn Barrage Committee in the light of later engineering experience and practice and of other developments, and to suggest what modifications, if any, should be made in the proposed scheme, the programme for its execution and estimates of its cost."

In February 1945 this body reported that the barrage power scheme was practicable from the engineering point of view, and could be economically justified. Included among their findings were :

- (i) That the best site for the Barrage is at the " English Stones " ;
- (ii) that single tide working, generating power on the falling tide only, is the most suitable under the conditions obtaining ;
- (iii) that the maximum power available at spring tides will be in round figures 800,000 kilowatts, and that the average output of energy at the Barrage sub-stations will be 2,190,000,000 and at the points of reception 2,107,000,000 kilowatt-hours during the first 15 years and 2,207,000,000 kilowatt-hours thereafter ;
- (iv) that the road and rail crossings should be treated independently of the power scheme ; and
- (v) that in view of the rapid expansion of the supply and demand of electricity in the country, intermittent and variable energy from the Severn Barrage can be used in conjunction with existing and new coal-fired power stations connected to the " grid " system, so that the need for storage of energy no longer arises.

The estimated total capital costs of the scheme under the conditions stated, and without transmission, at pre-war and at estimated values used in the Report are shown below :

	A	B
	1936 <i>Pre-war basis</i>	1944 <i>Report basis</i>
Barrage scheme	£24,454,000	£40,216,700
Barrage with transmission . .	£28,640,000	£47,006,700

The estimated average saving in coal for the first 15 years of operation is 985,000 tons per annum.

The work could be completed in eight years and the average number of men employed yearly would be 4,570 at the site. In addition to these, about 6,285 men would be indirectly employed yearly in the manufacture of cement, steel, machinery and the transport of materials. The average yearly total would be therefore 10,855. The average yearly total including labour for transmission and substations would be 11,727.

Wales. It was officially stated in February 1944 by the Minister of Fuel and Power that "the areas in Wales where hydro-electric power resources exist, which might be capable of development on an economic basis, are now being surveyed by the North Wales Power Company, who have included the harnessing of the River Conway in their survey."

3. HIGHWAYS

"Measures to improve and extend the highway system are to be put into operation as part of a plan to increase the efficiency and the scope of the inland transport system as a whole. The measures are to be framed with full regard to the interests of Town and Country Planning; the location and requirements of industry and agriculture and other aspects of national planning particularly the Government's full employment policy. Their main object is to make the highways freer and safe for all classes of road users with corresponding advantage to the economy and well-being of the country as a whole." (Minister of Transport, 5th May 1946.)

The works programme is divided into three stages which will cover a period of at least ten years. *Stage I* is to be devoted to the overtaking of arrears of road maintenance which accumulated during the six years of war; to the repair of serious damage to highways caused by military manœuvres; to the resumption of schemes—such as the Dartford-Purfleet Tunnel—for which work was interrupted by the outbreak of war; to the initiation of work of first priority in and in connection with the Development Areas; and finally to the reconstruction of road works forming part of the war-damaged cities. *Stage II* should see the completion of arrears of maintenance and continued activity in the elimination of accident black spots. In this period, there should also be increased activity on major road works of new construction as well as on road improvements in Development Areas and other schemes started before 1939. During *Stage III* a comprehensive reconstruction of the principal national routes should be completed.

The rate at which it will be possible to initiate and proceed with the work planned will depend on the materials and labour force available and the amount of financial provision which can be made. Preliminary steps include :

- (i) *The establishment of a Committee on Road Safety in December 1943.* Road Safety is closely related both to the future layout of towns and highways. The work of the Committee covers such matters as drawing up plans for more motor-car parks everywhere, more lay-bys for road lorries on country roads, etc.

(ii) *The passing of the Trunk Roads Act in March 1946.* The Act provides for supplementing the national system of routes for through traffic (by adding to it other roads particularly those connecting the chief centres of industry and population with each other or with the most important ports, and roads connecting the more important food-producing districts with their markets) so as to form an interconnecting system of principal routes between various parts of the country. The Act also lays down that a general power should be conferred on the Central Authority to reorganise the whole system by the construction of new roads, etc., where necessary—and stresses that in doing so consideration should be given to the needs of national and local planning.

(iii) *The extension and simplification of the system of grants from the Road Fund.* This will assist Local Highway Authorities with whom the initiative in highway improvements primarily rests—apart from the Trunk Roads, for which the Minister of Transport is directly responsible.

(iv) *The appointment of an Expert Committee to investigate Ferry Services linking Trunk and Classified Roads* with the following terms of reference :

“ to investigate ferry services linking trunk and classified roads in Great Britain ; to make recommendations for the improvement of the equipment or operation of such services with a view to their greater efficiency and adequacy, and with the same object to report on the amendment of the law governing the provision of such services that appear to be desirable.”

The Severn Bridge Scheme. It was announced in January 1944 that the Government attached considerable importance, on account of the great economic value to South Wales, to the provision of a new Road Crossing of the Severn Estuary. A subsequent announcement (12th July 1946) stated that an order had been made with regard to the Severn Bridge and that it was hoped a start could be made during the early part of next year.

4. PORTS

The formation of a new Port Authority for the Clyde similar to the Port of London Authority was recommended in the Report of the Clyde Estuary Committee, which was appointed in August 1944 under the chairmanship of Lord Cooper “ to inquire into the present arrangements for the provision and administration of navigational facilities and of docks and harbours of the River and Firth of Clyde and the lochs leading from them, and to report what modifications, if any, in those arrangements are desirable for the promotion of the trade of the estuary and the public interest.”

The Report published in December 1944 also proposed the evolution of a master plan, which might incorporate the following :

- dry dock facilities for the largest ships ;
- better facilities for handling ore cargoes ;
- increased mechanisation ;
- first-class roads serving and radiating from the dock areas ;
- expansion of barge traffic ; and
- construction of a naval base.

[For further details on Physical Reconstruction, see *Post-War Reconstruction in Britain—A Record of Progress, January 1941–November 1944* ; and *Town and Country Planning*, R.1062.]

XV. POPULATION

1. ESTIMATED CIVILIAN POPULATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM AT 30th JUNE 1946⁽¹⁾.

	Total	Males	Females
United Kingdom ..	47,175,000	21,787,000	25,388,000
England and Wales ..	40,909,000	18,841,000	22,068,000
Scotland	4,933,000	2,306,000	2,627,000
Northern Ireland ..	1,333,000	640,000	693,000

THOUSANDS

AGE	UNITED KINGDOM		ENGLAND AND WALES		SCOTLAND		NORTHERN IRELAND	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
0-4	1,952	1,861	1,669	1,589	214	207	69	65
5-9	1,702	1,644	1,439	1,390	205	198	58	56
10-14	1,663	1,618	1,400	1,363	203	197	60	58
15-19	1,369	1,704	1,138	1,441	169	200	62	63
20-24	917	1,786	748	1,542	122	187	47	57
25-29	1,488	1,806	1,276	1,584	163	163	49	59
30-34	1,743	1,945	1,510	1,703	188	190	45	52
35-39	1,824	1,997	1,609	1,749	174	201	41	47
40-44	1,792	1,912	1,590	1,674	164	194	38	44
45-49	1,541	1,755	1,365	1,540	145	179	31	36
50-54	1,341	1,621	1,183	1,425	128	162	30	34
55-59	1,231	1,481	1,090	1,309	114	142	27	30
60-64	1,065	1,332	938	1,177	101	127	26	28
65 and over	2,157	2,926	1,886	2,582	216	280	55	64

[Source : Registrars-General]

⁽¹⁾ Excluding members of His Majesty's Armed Forces and Auxiliary Services who on 30th June 1946 numbered 2,032,000 (men 1,895,000, women 137,000).

2. BIRTH AND DEATH RATES

YEAR	Birth Rate per 1,000 of Population			Death Rate per 1,000 of Population		
	England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	England and Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
1938	15.1	17.7	20.0	11.6	12.6	13.7
1939	14.9	17.4	19.5	12.1	12.9	13.5
1940	14.5	17.1	19.6	13.9	14.9	14.6
1941	14.1	17.5	20.9	12.8	14.7	15.2
1942	15.6*	18.1	22.9	11.5*	13.0	13.3
1943	16.2*	18.4	24.2	11.9*	13.3	13.4
1944	17.5*	19.2*	23.5	11.6*	12.9*	12.8
1945	16.0*	16.9*	22.0*	11.4*	13.2*	12.3*

* Provisional figures.

[Source : Registrars-General]

3. MARRIAGES REGISTERED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM THOUSANDS

YEAR	UNITED KINGDOM	ENGLAND AND WALES	SCOTLAND	NORTHERN IRELAND
1935/9*	421.7	373.0	39.8	8.8
1st Quarter*	63.7	54.3	7.8	1.6
2nd Quarter*	108.6	96.9	9.5	2.2
3rd Quarter*	138.4	123.4	12.3	2.7
4th Quarter*	111.0	98.4	10.2	2.3
1940	533.7	470.5	53.6	9.6
1941	448.6	388.9	47.7	11.9
1942	429.0	369.7	47.5	11.7
1943	344.8	296.4	38.3	10.1
1944	349.3	302.7	37.1	9.6
1945	454.5	395.5	48.7	10.4
1946—				
1st Quarter	89.7	77.5	10.0	2.2
2nd Quarter	114.8	100.8	11.5	2.5

* Averages for 5 years.

[Source : Registrars-General]

XVI. RATIONING AND RESTRICTIONS

1. FOOD

Food rationing in the United Kingdom was introduced by the Government in January 1940, for butter, bacon and sugar. Rationing has been extended until all important foods are controlled.

RATIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN

MINIMUM			MAXIMUM		30th Aug. 1946 RATIONS
Bacon and Ham	3 oz.	May 1945	8 oz.	Jan. 1940	3 oz.
Sugar ..	8 oz.	May 1940	1 lb.	July 1942	8 oz.
Tea ..	2 oz.	July 1940	4 oz.	Dec. 1940	2½ oz.
Meat ..	1s.	Mar. 1941	2s. 2d.	Sept. 1940	1s. 4d. worth
Cheese ..	1 oz.	May 1941	8 oz.	July 1942	2 oz.
Jam ..	8 oz.	Mar. 1941 per month	2 lb.	April 1944 per month	1 lb. per month
<i>Fats</i>					Total weekly ration 7 oz. ; 1 oz. cooking fat—of remaining 6 oz. on alternate weeks 4 oz. and 2 oz. butter may be taken, rest in margarine
Butter ..	2 oz.	Sept. 1940	8 oz.	Mar. 1940	
Margarine	4 oz.	Sept. 1940	5 oz.	Nov. 1941	
Cooking fats	1 oz.	Mar. 1946	3 oz.	Nov. 1941	
<i>Milk.</i> Nov. 1941, 2 pints per week			4 pints per week, May 1944		2 pints per week
<i>Points*</i> Total 16 for 4 weeks Dec. 1941			Total 32 for 4 weeks July 1946		32 points per ration period of 4 weeks
<i>Sweets.</i> 8 oz. per month, July 1942			16 oz. per month, Aug. 1942		14 oz. per month

* Purchase of the following foods is controlled by the "points" system: canned meat, canned fish, canned beans, canned meat products, canned fruit, canned vegetables (peas and tomatoes), canned condensed milk, cereal breakfast foods, rice, sago and tapioca, dried egg, dried peas, dried fruit, beans and lentils, syrup and treacle, biscuits and oatflakes, and canned macaroni, shredded suet and table jellies. Each food is given a "points" value which is varied from time to time to balance supply and demand: e.g., syrup is eight points per lb., cereal breakfast foods from 2-4 points per packet, a tin of meat and vegetables two points. On the introduction of bread rationing in July 1946, cereal products such as oatmeal, semolina, macaroni, pudding mixtures and pearl barley were included in the points rationing scheme.

Eggs. Allocated to ordinary consumers, as available ; 30 allocations, each of one egg, made in 1944, and 47 allocations in 1945. Average pre-war consumption about 15 per month. Expectant mothers receive two eggs on each allocation. Priority consumers (children 6-24 months and certain invalids) allowed three eggs per week. One packet of dried egg, equivalent to 12 shell eggs, was allocated to ordinary consumers every four weeks ; two packets to children under five ; three packets to expectant mothers, and double during winter. Allocations ceased in February 1946, and in June 1946, dried eggs were included in the points rationing scheme, at eight points a packet. Expectant mothers and children under five receive one packet free of points every eight weeks.

Milk. Priority of supply guaranteed weekly as follows : Expectant mothers seven pints ; mothers of children under 12 months, seven pints ; children under five, seven pints ; children and adolescents over five and under 18, $3\frac{1}{2}$ pints ; children 5-14 unable to attend school, five pints ; certain invalids, up to 14 pints. Allowance for non-priority consumers is two pints weekly. One tin of dried skimmed milk (equal to four pints) was allocated to each consumer every eight weeks from October 1945 to March 1946. Until further notice dried milk can be sold unrestrictedly by retailers to customers registered for sugar.

Allowances for Expectant Mothers. Entitled to Child's Ration Book as well as their own to enable them to receive extra half-ration of meat, and cod liver oil and orange juice, in addition to extra milk, shell and dried eggs as above. They are also entitled to normal milk allowance for non-priority consumers.

Bread and Flour. On 21st July 1946, bread, flour, cakes and buns were rationed under one scheme. The unit of measurement is a Bread Unit. A normal adult has nine Bread Units per week. They may be spent anywhere and at any time during the four-week ration period.

Examples of Bread Unit values :—

1 small loaf (14 oz.)	2 Bread Units
1 large loaf (1 lb. 12 oz.)	4 " "
Flour 1 lb.	3 " "
Cakes, buns and scones, 1 lb.	2 " "

Certain people receive a higher bread and flour ration, for example expectant mothers, adolescents from 11-18 years of age and manual workers.

[NOTE.—If not all needed, Bread Units may be exchanged in batches of eight units for eight points, and conversely. The exchange can be made at local food offices within the four-week period.]

Note. For purchase of meat, fats, bacon and ham, cheese, milk, sugar, eggs and preserves rations, consumers must register with retailers who may be changed at any time except within eight weeks of the end of the rationing year, provided that the consumer has been registered with the retailer for eight weeks beforehand. Consumers required to purchase tea ration monthly ; old age pensioners excepted. Option given to purchase butter, cheese and cooking fats ration monthly instead of weekly.

Allowances to Industrial and Other Workers. Factory canteens and other catering establishments feeding industrial workers receive an allowance of rationed foods on a scale higher than that for ordinary catering establishments, e.g., hotels. Industries include : brick and cement manufacture, mining, quarrying, iron, steel works, shipbuilding, etc. Feeding arrangements are also made for special categories of worker, i.e., seamen, crews of fishing and tug boats, dredgers and agricultural

workers and miners. The provision of hot drinks is also arranged. Allowances are made for seasonal work, e.g., threshing, lambing, harvesting, etc., where there are no canteen facilities. For specified groups of workers who cannot take advantage of canteen facilities because of the nature of their work, there is an extra ration of cheese to provide packed meals.

2. CLOTHES

Rationing was introduced on 1st June 1941. Coupon value is allotted to every rationed article and persons of all ages have coupons. In the first year 66 coupons were allotted. For the period May to September 1946, 14 coupons were allotted—an annual rate of 36 coupons. It has, however, been possible to make the allowance for the next period available a month earlier, so that from 1st August 1946 every adult has had 30 coupons, to last until 28th February 1947. Examples of coupon values are: overcoat (wool and fully lined) 18 coupons, man's suit 26–29 (according to lining), men's shoes 9, women's 7, woollen dress 11, non-woollen dress 7, stockings $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 3.

Special Coupon Allowances. All children under 18 years of age on 1st August 1946 receive 10 extra coupons. In addition, all children born between 2nd August 1928 and 31st July 1930 receive a further 10 coupons, and children born between 1st August 1930 and 31st December 1935 receive a further 20. Expectant mothers receive 70 extra coupons, and certain classes of workers (e.g., industrial and agricultural workers) receive supplementary coupons.

Demobilised men receive a complete outfit, plus 90 coupons and the balance of the civilian ration. Demobilised women receive 146 coupons, a money grant instead of an outfit, and the balance of the civilian ration.

Further coupon allowances are to be made to demobilised men and women later this year.

Austerity restrictions introduced between March and May 1942 applied to clothing, utility and non-utility, in order to economise labour and raw materials: for example the numbers of buttons, pockets and pleats were restricted. These restrictions have gradually been lifted between March and June 1946, and now are no longer in force.

3. SOAP

All types of soap are rationed. Coupon value is allotted to soaps by weight, and when liquid by quantity. Three coupons are allowed per four-week period. Children under five receive four coupons, and babies under one year receive eight coupons in the period.

One coupon will buy any of the following:

- 4 oz. hard soap
- 3 oz. toilet soap
- 6 oz. soft soap
- 6 oz. No. 1 soap powder
- 12 oz. No. 2 soap powder
- 3 oz. soap flakes
- $\frac{1}{2}$ pint No. 1 liquid soap
- 1 pint No. 2 liquid soap

4. FUEL

The legal basis for the control of fuel is the *Fuel and Lighting (Coal) Order*, 1941, which came into force in January 1942. Central heating is prohibited during the summer months and the utmost economy in electricity and gas is urged.

Domestic coal and coalite are rationed, the allowance for the year May 1946–April 1947 being as follows :

I. House and Kitchen Coal and Coalite

Southern Regions.—The maximum for the 12 months is 34 cwt. of which not more than 15 cwt. may be supplied between 1st May and 31st October, and not more than 8 cwt. each two months period, November–December, January–February, and March–April.

Northern Regions.—The maximum for the 12 months is 50 cwt. of which not more than 10 cwt. may be supplied each three months, May–July and August–October, and not more than 15 cwt. each three months, November–January and February–April.

II. Coke, Anthracite, Welsh and Kent Dry Steam Coal and all Manufactured Fuels other than Coalite.

The maximum for the 12 months is 40 cwt., of which not more than 20 cwt. may be supplied during each six months period, May–October and November–April.

III. The following fuels may be obtained free of restriction provided supplies are available locally : unscreened coke breeze ; washery slurry ; anthracite grains, duff and large ; Welsh dry steam large ; and bituminous fines not exceeding one-eighth of an inch.

IV. Consumers entirely dependent on solid fuels for cooking (having no gas, electricity or oil), or having other special needs, may apply to the Local Fuel Overseer for additional supplies.

5. TRAVEL RESTRICTIONS

The basic petrol ration, first introduced in September 1939, and abolished in June 1942, was reintroduced in June 1945. The legal basis of petrol rationing is the *Motor Fuel Rationing Order*, 1939—later consolidated in the *Control of Motor Fuel Order*, 1944. The basic ration varies per horsepower of the car concerned, but is sufficient for, on average, 270 miles per month. It was increased to this on 16th July 1946. The basic ration up to this date was sufficient for 180 miles per month.

6. CONSUMPTION LEVELS.

NATIONAL COST OF PERSONAL CONSUMPTION AT CURRENT AND AT 1938 PRICES

£ million	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945
At current prices ..	3,602	3,659	3,796	3,839	4,010	4,006	4,285	4,582
At 1938 prices ..	3,602	3,603	3,241	3,001	2,963	2,844	2,974	3,115
Index numbers (1938=100)								
At current prices ..	100	102	105	107	111	111	119	127
At 1938 prices ..	100	100	90	83	82	79	83	86

SOME EXAMPLES OF PRODUCTION AND SUPPLIES FOR HOME CIVILIAN MARKET

March-April 1946	Production	Supplies for Home Civilian Market
Socks and stockings (men)	5.5 millions	4.2 millions (7.5 millions, 1937)
Socks and stockings (women)	14.4 millions	13.0 millions (25.0 millions, 1937)
Linoleum	2,323 thousand sq. yds.	1,587 thousand sq. yds. (4,700 thousand sq. yds., 1935)
Footwear (April)	8.7 million pairs	9.9 million pairs (10.7 million pairs, 1935)
Electrical vacuum cleaners (Jan.-Mar. 1946)	33.1 thousand	26.7 thousand (33.0 thousand, 1935)

[For conditions in industry, see Section XII, Industry and Trade, p. 84.]

XVII. RECREATION AND CULTURE

1. PUBLIC LIBRARIES, MUSEUMS, ART GALLERIES

Public Libraries. There are four main types of public library service : (i) books from lending departments for home reading ; (ii) reference material available on the library premises ; (iii) the provision of current periodicals ; and (iv) a children's library, which is a combination of the foregoing types for children and often kept in specially low shelves. The provision of a public library is in no way compulsory, but local councils are free to adopt the powers of the Libraries Acts, if they so wish. During the war the numbers of people using public libraries greatly increased and seem likely to continue to do so.

Library authorities in Great Britain and Northern Ireland have more than doubled since the date of the first Public Libraries Act in 1850. To-day there are over 600 urban and county library authorities and, out of the total population of Great Britain, only some 350,000 people live in areas with no public libraries. Public libraries are maintained from local rates and are under the management of the Public Libraries Committee of the Town or County Council. In counties, this

committee is a sub-committee of the Education Committee. In the counties, books are sent to more remote areas by means of travelling libraries in vans, and boxes of books are sent to local schools, village clubs and institutes from the county library. There are now 19,000 such centres.

Museums. During the war many museums were closed and their contents sent to safe areas. Owing to call-up of staff, 20 museums and galleries were closed and in all over 100 were closed or put to other uses. In certain cases it was found impossible to accommodate exhibits elsewhere, and 13 collections were lost by enemy action.

In London the Victoria and Albert Museum remained partly open throughout the war and will be opening completely soon. The Natural History Museum was reopened on 1st November 1946. It suffered extensive war damage. The upper floors are still closed and the reopening was delayed owing to a shortage of roofing glass. The Science Museum was reopened in February 1946, having been closed since June 1940. Since its reopening, over half a million people had visited it between February and June. The Imperial War Museum, which received extensive bomb damage, is not yet reopened to the public. The British Museum also received considerable bomb damage. In June 1946 its famous reading room was reopened, having been closed since September 1940. In addition, a small exhibition was opened in one large gallery of the British Museum in April 1946. Two-fifths of the space of this exhibition has been allotted to works of the Greek and Græco-Roman periods. Other museums still unopened include the Soane Museum, Lincoln's Inn Fields, and the Geological Museum.

In the provinces museums and institutes are reopening gradually. Among these are the Whitworth Institute, Manchester, which reopened in March 1946, and the Ruskin Museum, Sheffield, which reopened in April 1946.

Art Galleries. As in the case of museums, many art galleries were closed during the war; some received extensive bomb damage, others less, and most are reopening or planning to do so at the present moment. Pictures from the National Gallery were stored in a quarry in North Wales for safety during the war. Although never closed altogether, the gallery had 9 bombs on it. Now, in 1946, 13 out of the 27 rooms are open once more. Lunch-hour concerts were given in the National Gallery during the war—the first was given on 10th October 1941, and the last on 11th April 1946. These proved immensely popular and were attended by thousands of people. The Tate Gallery was out of action owing to bomb damage, but was reopened on 11th April 1946. It is still not yet completely repaired, however. The National Portrait Gallery was reopened on 20th April 1946. A small exhibition was on view there throughout most of the war. During the war the Wallace Collection (the collection of the fourth Marquis of Hertford, including pictures, furniture, miniatures, jewellery and an armoury) was removed from Hertford House, Manchester Square. The house did not suffer any damage, however, and now the collection is once more on view in Hertford House.

In the provinces there are many excellent galleries. Manchester has one of the best collections of Pre-Raphaelites, and in the Whitworth Institute there is an excellent collection of water colours. Other notable galleries are in Birmingham, Leeds and Leicester. In Oxford and Cambridge the Ashmolean and the Fitzwilliam Museums house many old masters and other treasures. The smaller galleries in the provinces in many cases specialise in the work of local artists.

In Scotland the four National Museums and Galleries are in Edinburgh. They are the National Gallery of Scotland, the National Portrait Gallery, the Royal Scottish Museum, and the National Museum of Antiquities. Glasgow possesses the largest and most important municipal collection, and other excellent galleries are

at Perth and Kirkcaldy. During the war the National Gallery of Scotland was cleared and temporary exhibitions held there ; the collection is now restored.

2. THE ARTS COUNCIL

The Arts Council of Great Britain was incorporated under Charter in June 1945. The Council is not in any sense a Government department and its task is to keep up the interest in the arts, which has increased in many new centres during the war. Since its incorporation the work of the Council has been proceeding along the lines previously followed by C.E.M.A.—the Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts.

The Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts was set up in January 1940. The primary purpose of the Council was to maintain the standards of the arts under war-time conditions and to encourage people all over England and Wales in the appreciation of them. This was done by the giving of concerts, plays and exhibitions under the auspices of C.E.M.A., not only in London, but in many provincial centres, so making these accessible to more people than ever before. Panels of experts for the three fields of Music, Drama and Art were set up, and Regional Offices, planned on the Civil Defence model, were opened. The Pilgrim Trust made a grant of £25,000 when the Council first began its work, but this was followed by Treasury Grants and in the spring of 1942 C.E.M.A. became wholly supported by Government Grants.

Work done by the Council included many projects such as concerts in churches, productions in London parks, 50 exhibitions circulated to municipal galleries, and several thousand entertainments in factories, villages, hostels and Allied troop centres all over the country. Many orchestras (symphony, chamber and string) were associated with C.E.M.A. on a yearly basis, and a number of theatres were under its direct management ; other companies were associated with it and some outside organisations were engaged by the Council.

3. NATIONAL PARKS AND OPEN SPACES : NATIONAL TRUST

National Parks. The establishment of National Parks is one of the major objectives of town and country planning. National Parks in Great Britain may be defined as areas of beautiful and wild country in which the characteristic landscape beauty will be strictly preserved, access and facilities for enjoyment provided for the public, and wild life and buildings and places of historic and architectural interest well protected.

A National Parks Committee was set up in July 1945 under the chairmanship of Sir Arthur Hobhouse. The Committee was set up to do further work such as the consideration of suitable areas and boundaries for National Parks and for the consideration of any additional measures necessary. A sub-committee on Foot-paths and Access to Mountains was appointed in August 1946 and will consider written evidence upon these matters.

The Council for the Preservation of Rural England. Taking the preservation of the countryside as its aim, the C.P.R.E. has, since its foundation in 1926, successfully striven to co-ordinate the work of other societies in the same field, to educate the public by means of exhibitions, literature and advisory panels, to assist local authorities and to influence Government action.

The National Trust. The National Trust was founded in 1895 as a private venture and was incorporated by Act of Parliament in 1907. The purpose of the Trust—as stated in the Act—is the promotion of the permanent preservation, for the benefit of the nation, of lands and tenements (including buildings) of beauty or historic interest, and as regards lands, for the preservation of their natural aspect, features and animal and plant life. Property of the Trust is usually acquired by

gift, or by purchase from funds subscribed by the public and includes villages, cliffs, headlands, houses and castles. More than 63 historic houses and estates belong to the Trust, and it now owns over 100,000 acres in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and buildings worth more than £1,250,000.

Scotland has her own National Trust, which was founded in 1931 by the late Duke of Atholl. Its purpose is the same as that of the English Trust and, like the latter, it receives no State assistance and its money comes from membership subscriptions and bequests.

4. HOLIDAYS AND TRAVEL

The Holidays with Pay Act, 1938. This Act did not at once make paid holidays compulsory. It encouraged them by requiring wage-regulating boards, i.e., Trade Boards and comparable bodies, to reach particular agreements affecting particular industries and districts. Holidays with Pay agreements in industry now benefit some fourteen million insured workers. An increasing proportion of recent decisions has been for two weeks' holiday instead of one. While payment for the holiday period does not in itself cover holiday expenses, it is a substantial help, and, considered in conjunction with higher wages, war savings, post-war credits and the need that everyone feels for a rest after the strain of recent years, it means that the demand for holidays and holiday accommodation is now greater than ever before. It has been roughly estimated that the present number of people demanding holidays is about 26 million, of whom approximately 8 million need to be catered for as families. This need is met to a large extent by the various forms of commercial enterprise, hotels, boarding houses, etc., and the holiday trades which cater for visitors, such as the restaurant trade and, less directly, such trades as entertainment, the laundry trade, transport, etc. Hotels and boarding houses are, however, beyond the financial reach of many, and it is therefore necessary to examine briefly the various forms of non-commercial enterprise besides making some references to the holiday trades.

The Holiday Trades. As an example of the numbers employed in holiday trades at a seaside resort, the case of Bournemouth may be cited where, in 1931, of every 1,000 of the occupied population 13 were occupied in the entertainment and sport trades and 77 in the lodging and boarding house trades. In Great Britain in 1939 1.28 per cent of the total occupied population were engaged in the entertainment and sport aspects of the holiday trades, and 12.61 per cent in the personal service aspects (i.e., restaurants, boarding houses, hairdressing, etc.). The holiday trades are markedly seasonal, with a period of good trade in March to October, a peak in August, and a secondary peak in December.

The road tourist passenger transport industry had grown enormously in the decade before the war. In the year 1936-7 its receipts totalled £5,400,000 and the total passengers carried numbered 82,400,000. The railways have provided extensive special holiday facilities to meet the increasing demand. A modern growth is the development of luxury coach tours and the innovation, by the railways, of camping coaches left on sidings by the sea or in the country and let to holiday-makers at a low cost. The railways estimate that they are required to carry 20 million or more extra passengers in August.

Holiday Camps. Private commercial enterprise has of recent years been successful in popularising the holiday camp. The better ones provide, on a large scale, the facilities of a good hotel, save that the sleeping quarters are of a simpler kind. The camps are equipped with dance halls, swimming pools, tennis courts and indoor games rooms and provide those of moderate means with communal entertainment and a measure of luxury.

The Contribution of Voluntary Effort. The larger part of the holiday demand in this country is met by the catering industry—the hotels, boarding houses, apartment houses, and holiday camps. There are, however, associations whose object is not profit but service to the community. The *Co-operative Holidays Association* and the *Holiday Fellowship* were founded at the turn of the century. Their guest-houses, which are frequently converted country houses, are distinguished by their communal life, cultured entertainment and by the strenuous open-air activities which they organise. The *Workers' Travel Association* started its activities in 1922. Its membership was at first predominantly trade union. Shortly before the war it was associated with the *Co-operative Wholesale Society* in the establishment of two large holiday camps ("Travco"). The Association was primarily established to promote personal contact between workers of all countries, on a reciprocal basis of holiday travel, as an aid to peace. It now provides a complete and world-wide travel service. In 1938, the C.H.A., in terms of guest weeks, provided 28,872 holidays, the H.F. 39,439, and the W.T.A. 48,000. The organisation which has shown the most phenomenal rate of growth in recent years is the *Youth Hostels Association* which provides simple accommodation, which may vary from a manor house to a barn, at 1s. a night for its members, who are mostly hikers and cyclists between 16 and 25, although there is no upper age limit. Between 1930 and 1938, membership rose from 6,439 to 79,821. Camping organisations are co-ordinated by the *Camping Club of Great Britain and Ireland*, founded in 1901, which has fostered the art of camping and fought for the campers' rights.

The *National Youth Organisations* (Scouts, Girl Guides, etc.) are making a big contribution in this field, especially since they received the impetus of the Youth Service. Mention must also be made of the *Young Men's Christian Association*, the *Young Women's Christian Association*, and the holidays at very low cost provided for children and adults by churches and settlements. There is also a great variety of private holiday schemes, catering for small numbers—for example, the *Guinness Trust Home* at Newhaven, and the arrangements made by certain bodies connected with trades, professions and industries.

In a somewhat different category, since they are really agencies which provide information or recommend accommodation, are the cycling clubs—the *Cyclists' Touring Club* and the *National Cyclists' Union*. The *Central Council of Physical Recreation* is interested chiefly in leadership training and physical education, but during the war it also organised holiday camps for war workers. Although the Council's post-war camping policy is concerned mainly with leadership training, it shares the concern of the *Camping Club* to raise the general standard of camping. Finally, mention should be made of the summer schools and conferences arranged by educational and political bodies such as the *Fabian Society*. It has been calculated that some three-quarters of a million people already arrange their holidays through voluntary organisations in the ways described above. This figure may seem small when contrasted with the total estimated demand of 26 millions. These organisations are, however, capable of expansion in the post-war world and are eager to serve the interests of the young and the less well-to-do.

Other Forms of Non-Commercial Enterprise. *Local Authorities.* Before the war, local authorities had in some cases begun to evolve plans similar to that of Lambeth to provide a camp at Herne Bay for 400 people at a cost of £50,000. This development was cut short by the war, but it is hoped that it and similar plans intended to benefit working-class families may now be implemented.

Welfare Departments of Commercial Firms have given attention to holiday schemes varying from supplying information and inaugurating holiday saving schemes to planning holidays at cheap rates for their employees.

The *Miners' Welfare Commission* is responsible, through the Derbyshire Miners' Welfare Committee, for a seaside holiday camp at Skegness as well as for a number

of rest and convalescent homes. At the camp the weekly charge before the war was the unusually cheap one of 26s. 8d. for an adult. *The National Association of Local Government Officers* is responsible for two family holiday centres for members of the association.

The Co-operative Union has recently opened two centres for educational holidays for members of its youth organisation.

Work Camps. In the opinion of the organisers both the agricultural camps organised by the Ministry of Agriculture and the work camps organised by the Youth Service Volunteers have an appeal not wholly connected with the war emergency and might well be continued, with increased social amenities, in the post-war world.

National Forest Parks. "Forest Parks" are tracts of country, owned by the Forestry Commission and reserved for the growing of timber, but also offering some facilities for public recreation. The Forestry Commissioners have made a special feature of providing camp sites on the unplanted land of these areas, and have made proposals, in their Report for 1943, for the extension of this side of their work so far as the technical considerations of forestry will allow. Already they have provided three such Parks, each offering camping sites and other simple accommodation. These are Argyll (54,000 acres), Snowdonia (20,500 acres), and Dean Forest (23,000 acres). They were opened in 1936, 1940 and 1939 respectively. In the Argyll Forest Park the Commissioners have provided camp sites for 1,800 people at very small charges. There are also in the Park five Youth Hostels with accommodation for 442 persons. As the Forest of Dean and Snowdonia Forest Parks were opened only as the war broke out, visitors have so far been few.

Holidays at Home. However well planned holidays may be, the fact remains that thousands of town-dwellers do not get away from home for a holiday and, even in towns where the majority of the inhabitants do manage this, the Holidays at Home, instituted during the war, have proved a welcome addition to the normal life of cities. In many towns the plans have been carried out by the parks committees and their officials. Large cities normally provide bowls and tennis in the parks, swimming pools and other amenities and, during the war, such services have been added to by bands and dancing in the parks, by plays and concerts in the open air, often of the highest standard, and by competitions and shows which have given people both an incentive and an outlet for their hobbies.

Holidays Abroad. For the last 40 years the *Co-operative Holidays Association* and the *Holiday Fellowship* have considered holidays abroad to be an integral part of their work and the promotion of international understanding one of their aims. In 1927 the *Holiday Fellowship*, in association with other groups, opened an international hostel near London as an English home for foreign friends. Other voluntary organisations which have traditionally helped in arranging holiday exchange visits between England and other countries are the *Young Men's Christian Association* and *Young Women's Christian Association*, the *Boy Scouts* and *Girl Guides Associations*, and the *Camping Club*. Holidays with pay, combined with all the possibilities of cheapening air travel, will bring holidays on the Continent within the reach of a greatly increased public.

The Future. With regard to the future mention may be made of the following points :

The Post-War Holidays Group of the Catering Wages Commission, 1944, recommended the setting up of a Central Authority to deal with the question of holidays. It envisaged the first task of the authority to be that of submitting to the Government recommendations for the use of those hostels and camps, constructed for war-time purposes, which are suitable for holidays.

The International Youth Hostels have evolved a new plan to facilitate inexpensive visits between the youth of different countries, especially across the Atlantic.

The machinery for assisting voluntary holiday-providing organisations now exists, under Section 53 of the *Education Act*, 1944, at the Ministry of Education.

5. COMMUNITY CENTRES

During the present century the day-to-day life of the British people has been profoundly affected by two clearly related developments, the mechanisation of industry and a progressive reduction in working hours. The result has been a demand for more opportunities for spending leisure time usefully and happily, for in a great many places both in towns and villages there has been a great shortage of suitable buildings where people could meet together to carry on their social, educational and recreational activities. The great need was for ample and congenial premises where men and women could afford to spend their leisure, create their own social life and develop their potentialities. Towards the end of the war the Government asked the Ministry of Education to consider ways and means of improving matters, and as a result a report was issued advocating a widespread development of Community Centres and Village Halls and recommending that this development should be closely related to the educational system. A Community Centre as understood in this connection might be defined as a meeting place where neighbours, either individually or as members of local societies, can come together on an equal footing and enjoy their social and educational activities together. They are so conducted as to be available to all who live near by, and managed as far as possible by those who use them. The size and equipment of a Community Centre will obviously vary greatly according to the size and needs of the town or village in which it is situated, and the larger Centres require a full-time warden or manager in charge.

A policy of development on the lines recommended in the report of the Ministry of Education is now being carried out under the general guidance of the Ministry and the Local Education Authorities. The prevailing shortage of labour and materials is a serious handicap in regard to building, but a large number of local schemes for providing Centres is being prepared both by Local Authorities and Voluntary Associations.

The cost of maintenance of Centres is borne by the members, together with any assistance that may be offered by the Local Education Authorities. In order to assist in developing the work, the Ministry of Education is ready for the time being to offer direct grants towards the capital costs of new Centres.

Voluntary Effort. After the 1914-18 war voluntary bodies began to set up settlements and working men's institutes with the primary object of restoring the lost sense of community and neighbourliness. Between the two wars new housing estates were built without proper community provision and again it fell on voluntary bodies, notably the National Council of Social Service, to repair the deficiency with a new type of centre.

This embodied an important advance on the old concept in that it aimed to be democratic in membership and management and to be representative of all individuals and organisations in the neighbourhood whose social, educational and recreational needs it was designed to serve. The name given to this new form is the *Community Association*, which to-day provides the pattern for a large and growing number of Community Associations grouped together in a National Federation, for purposes of self-help and the qualitative and quantitative development of the movement. The Federation has nearly 100 members drawn from all over the country, from places as far apart as Reading and Glasgow and differing

widely in size and type of locality, as on the one hand Lymington in rural Hampshire with a population of 4,600, and on the other, London or Birmingham, each with many associations.

In present conditions, the device of the Community Association is proving extremely apt, for it enables the fullest use to be made of all existing and temporary accommodation while developing a community spirit in readiness for the graceful buildings equipped with entrance halls, canteens, rooms for small groups as well as large halls, which it is hoped to provide as the building shortage eases.

An immense stimulus to this movement has been given by the recent war, which provided hundreds of thousands of people of all ages with their first real experience of communal living. Consequently there are now hundreds of new Community Centre schemes springing up all over the country. The Government policy is helping this trend, for, while giving increasing responsibility to statutory authorities in the matter of provision of buildings and facilities for communal life, it is leaving the management largely in the hands of the people themselves.

6. FILMS, THEATRE, MUSIC

The British Film Industry. Nearly 30,000,000 people attend the 5,000 cinemas in Britain each week, paying annually about £120,000,000 sterling for admission. Of this huge sum the Government takes about £45,000,000 in Entertainment Tax.

These figures give some idea of the size of the industry in the United Kingdom and to cater for this great market—hitherto, it must be admitted, almost entirely monopolised by the U.S.A.—British film producers are making a determined effort to raise the standard of their productions.

In this they are succeeding, despite difficulties due to shortage of studio space—many studios were requisitioned by the Government during the war—and lack of equipment. Although only 65 British feature pictures were produced during 1945, they included that outstanding and successful example of film art *Henry V*, and other quality pictures which were highly successful at home and abroad, including *The Seventh Veil* and *Cæsar and Cleopatra*.

As far as the "documentary," or film dealing with some aspect of day-to-day life, is concerned Britain undoubtedly leads the world. During the war Government-sponsored films of this type achieved a world-wide circulation; their standard and technique are unique and show no sign of falling off now that the war is over.

Censorship in Great Britain is carried out by the British Board of Film Censors, which is not a statutory body. Films are placed in three categories: "A" for exhibition to adult audiences and which children can attend only if accompanied by a grown-up; "U" for exhibition to all audiences; and "H," a very rarely given certificate, which entirely prohibits the attendance of children. The final decision, however, rests with the Local Licensing Authorities, of which there are some hundreds throughout the country, any one of whom can overrule the decision of the Board. This power is used very infrequently.

The principal figure in the British Film Industry is undoubtedly J. Arthur Rank. Becoming interested in the cinema just before the war, he now controls two of the three major cinema circuits in England (owning nearly 600 cinemas) and many of the larger producing and distributing companies. He is making a great and successful effort to capture the overseas market, including the U.S.A., for British films, and in this he is assisted by the British Film Producers' Association, which has set up a permanent Export Committee to survey and report on film markets abroad.

The value of the film as a means of educating school children is now fully recognised in Britain, mainly as the result of the activities of the British Film Institute, a semi-official body set up to encourage the use of the cinematograph as a means of entertainment and instruction. Some 2,000 schools are already equipped with projectors, while the Ministry of Education has undertaken the encouragement of the production of suitable educational films.

On the cultural side, the same organisation has also encouraged the development of the Film Society movement. There are now more than 70 private film societies operating in the U.K., and the influence of these enthusiastic bands of individuals in improving the standard of films produced is great and growing.

The Theatre. The end of the war brought a boom to the London Theatre. The season was made memorable primarily by the distinguished productions of the Old Vic Company at the New Theatre. Here such well-known actors as Laurence Olivier, Ralph Richardson, Dame Sybil Thorndike, Nicholas Hannen and Joyce Redman appeared in Tchekov's "Uncle Vanya," "Henry IV" and "Oedipus," and Sheridan's hilarious "Critic."

These great players work as simple craftsmen like the rest of the company to recreate the classics with that proficiency of technique for which the Old Vic has become famous. To this end they devote their individual talent, forgoing the greater material satisfactions of the films or the commercial theatre.

The Company paid a brief visit to Paris where they filled the Comédie Française while the French players took over the New Theatre.

Sadler's Wells reopened with a new British opera, "Peter Grimes," by Benjamin Britten. There was also a Shakespearian season at the Open Air Theatre in Regent's Park. John Gielgud produced three polished revivals—"A Midsummer Night's Dream," Webster's "Duchess of Malfi," Wilde's "Lady Windermere's Fan." To Gielgud Londoners were indebted for a distinguished and sensitive performance of "Hamlet" and later for a production of "Crime and Punishment" that was full of tumultuous life. Sheridan's "The Rivals" was successfully produced at the Criterion. Two good straight plays must be mentioned, Emlyn Williams's "The Wind of Heaven" and Norman Ginsbury's play about the Prince Regent, "The First Gentleman." New plays which drew large audiences were "Duet for Two Hands," by Mary Hayley Bell, and "The Hasty Heart," by John Patrick.

Noel Coward continued to fill three playhouses with the sparkling entertainment of "Sigh No More," a revival of "Private Lives," and with "Blithe Spirit." Terence Rattigan also kept the standard of comedy high by the wit of his dialogue and his ability to assimilate and present the topical. Ivor Novello continued to delight large audiences with the romantic musical.

A distinct improvement in the appearance of the stage in recent years is perceptible. Even in the small Mercury Theatre this was apparent, for instance, in the lighting of a drop scene in "The Shadow Factory," by Anne Ridler. Shadow lent significance to the interplay of conspiracy, tragic and comic, in "Henry IV, Part I," at the New. For this production Roger Furze designed the quietly effective background which a great drama requires, while Cecil Beaton was responsible for the charmingly frivolous dresses in "Lady Windermere's Fan," and Oliver Messel for the exquisite colouring of "The Rivals."

The actual number of theatres is limited, partly by the fact that many of the larger ones have been turned into cinemas, and also by the fact that a large number

of them are in the hands of two or three powerful managers. They are responsible not only for the many excellent classical revivals and for the production of many good plays, but also for the difficulty which is experienced in producing new works, of which the financial success is uncertain, but which provide that element of experiment essential to the vitality of the theatre. Plays of this type are produced from time to time, however. "No Room at the Inn" is a recent example of the play which deals powerfully and honestly with a social problem. In this context it is necessary to mention the small theatres in the outskirts of London, the Lindsey Theatre, the Mercury Theatre, with a number of intelligent plays to its credit, the Unity Theatre, with its tradition of political satire, and the Embassy, which maintains a consistently high standard in plays of interest. It was here, for instance, that "Skipper Next to God" faced the contemporary tragedy of refugees. Among the theatre clubs, the Arts has been responsible for a series of intelligent plays, classical and modern, and the Players has brought back to London the delights of a sophisticated version of the gay nineties music hall.

Music. The re-establishment of the country's musical life is being retarded by the reduction in the number of concert halls available. Queen's Hall (London), the Free Trade Hall (Manchester), and the Colston Hall (Bristol) were all destroyed in the war. Public interest in music has grown enormously; there are six symphony orchestras in London alone. Standards of performance naturally fell off in war-time conditions, and programmes were made up largely of well-known works, Beethoven and Tchaikovsky being easily the most popular composers. The new public was inevitably more enthusiastic than discriminating, and standards will no doubt rise as peace-time conditions permit. The lunch-hour chamber concerts that drew large audiences to the National Gallery throughout the war have been allowed to lapse now that the Gallery has reverted to its former use. The vogue for ballet is greater than ever, and the Sadler's Wells Company is now installed at Covent Garden, where a permanent British Opera Company is also being formed.

The state of musical composition in England is healthy. There are several composers of more than average ability, perhaps the two greatest being the oldest and the youngest—Vaughan Williams (73), who is, like Verdi, producing his greatest works when most composers are silent or merely repetitive, and Benjamin Britten (32), whose first opera, "Peter Grimes," has already been performed with conspicuous success in five countries.

XVIII. SHIPPING

1. WAR LOSSES AND REPLACEMENTS

At the beginning of the war the sea-going Merchant Fleet registered in the United Kingdom amounted to some 17 million gross tons. In the course of the war more than half this tonnage was lost as a result of enemy action. Much of this loss, however, has been made good by new building, permanent acquisitions and the acquisition on a temporary basis of certain requisitioned foreign tonnage and a considerable amount of tonnage on bareboat charter mainly from the United States and Canada.

The following table shows the position of the United Kingdom Merchant Fleet at the outbreak of the war in September 1939, December 1942, July 1945, and July 1946.

SEA-GOING MERCHANT VESSELS REGISTERED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

(excluding foreign and Dominion vessels on requisition or on bareboat charter to the United Kingdom) ⁽¹⁾

Figures in gross tons

Date	1,600 g.t. and over		500-1,599 g.t.		Total 500 gross tons and over
	Non-Tankers	Tankers	Non-Tankers	Tankers	
3.9.39	13,079,000	2,977,000	784,000	52,000	16,892,000
31.12.42	9,299,000	2,257,000	536,000	49,000	12,141,000
31.7.45	9,567,000	2,522,000	524,000	71,000	12,684,000
31.7.46	10,093,000	2,661,000	575,000	90,000	13,419,000
1945 as a percentage of 1939	73.1	84.7	66.9	136.5	75.0
1946 as a percentage of 1939	77.2	89.4	73.4	173.1	79.4

⁽¹⁾ The tonnage so excluded on 31st July 1945 amounted to 3,157,000 gross tons ; on 31st July 1946 this had fallen to 2,885,000 gross tons.

The foregoing Table shows that at the end of hostilities the United Kingdom Merchant Fleet had been reduced to three-quarters of its pre-war size, but that in the next year it had increased to nearly 80 per cent of its pre-war size.

Considering ocean-going tonnage (taken roughly as that of 1,600 g.t. and over), there was a net loss up to the 31st July 1946 of 3,302,000 g.t., while at that date some 2½ million g.t. were still being used for the movement of troops and other Service requirements. There is, therefore, a considerable amount of leeway to be made up before the U.K. Merchant Fleet available for overseas trade reaches the pre-war level.

As a welcome sign, however, of the return to normal, there were, at the end of July 1946, something like 700,000 g.t. of shipping being reconverted from war to peace-time use. This included the *Queen Elizabeth* the first of the two *Queens* to come back to civil life. The passenger list of the *Queen Elizabeth* is normally 2,300, though during the war she was adapted to carry more than 15,000 troops when necessary.

2. SHIPBUILDING

On 30th June 1946 the substantial amount of 1,765,000 gross tons of shipping was under construction in the U.K. This is the largest total recorded since June 1922, and represented more than half the total tonnage of shipping under construc-

tion in the world. Of that amount of shipping it is estimated that 1,600,000 g.t. represented ocean-going vessels of 1,600 g.t. and over, but this figure included some 150,000 g.t. for overseas buyers.

3. PORTS

In spite of the considerable damage done by enemy action, especially to London and Liverpool, the ports are now generally in physically good condition, and are able to handle all the traffic that is likely to arise. Ships can now go to the ports which their owners or charterers desire to use, and the war-time power for determining the port to which ships may go has been retained only as an emergency precaution to avoid serious port congestion and to ensure the rapid turn-round of shipping.

4. COASTAL SHIPPING

The importance of coastal shipping as part of the transport system is indicated by the fact that last winter there were moved by this means nearly 2,000,000 tons of coal a month, which is equivalent to 4,000 full train loads.

Now that trade with the Continent is reopened some of the ships which were used on the coast during the war have gone back to short-sea work between Britain and the Continent.

The majority of pre-war liner services have been re-established, while a heavy demand is also being made upon the tramp vessels, notably for the import of timber.

5. MERCHANT NAVY

(a) Strength.—It is estimated that at the present time the officers and men employed in the British Mercantile Marine number 170,000, of whom 35,000 are Asiatic seamen.

(b) Seamen's Welfare.—In these notes, the term "welfare" is restricted to the welfare of seamen ashore in its accommodation and recreational aspects.

Prior to 1940, the responsibility for seamen's welfare rested almost entirely with voluntary organisations in this sphere. Partly as a result of an international recommendation, and partly because of the need of measures to meet war-time requirements, the Government established in October 1940 an official organisation, the main features of which were :

- (i) The Seamen's Welfare Board, on which shipowners, officers' and men's organisations and Government Departments are chiefly represented, to advise centrally on welfare questions.
- (ii) Port Welfare Committees, on which shipowners, officers' and men's organisations, voluntary organisations, local authorities, foreign Consuls and Government Departments are represented, to collect information about local activities, and to co-ordinate these activities and to stimulate development where necessary.
- (iii) Seamen's Welfare Officers, covering all the principal ports, to act as executive officers and to carry out the Government's policy in detail and to maintain contact with local activities and act as Secretaries of Port Welfare Committees.

This organisation, and the urgency of war-time conditions, has led to a great expansion, both in the number of hostels and recreational establishments for merchant

seamen, and in the standard of such establishments whether provided by the voluntary organisations or otherwise, as well as the provision of many other incidental facilities. A number of Government sponsored Merchant Navy Houses (i.e., Hostels) and Clubs have been set up of which at present 13 Houses and 7 Clubs are in existence.

In addition, during the war over 150 new clubs and hostels for merchant seamen in overseas ports were established and many others expanded. Many of the war-time ventures have now become redundant as shipping has returned to normal channels.

Government interest in Welfare Policy is now centralised in the Ministry of Transport, and the policy for future responsibility as between the industry, the voluntary organisations and the Government, is under consideration.

XIX. SOCIAL SERVICES

1. NATIONAL INSURANCE AND ASSISTANCE

The Royal Assent has now been given to three measures designed to secure a complete reorganisation and unification of the social insurance and assistance services under the Ministry of National Insurance, created by the *Ministry of National Insurance Act*, November 1944 (see R.616, Post-War Reconstruction). This unification is a matter on which all political parties are agreed. In March 1943 Mr. Churchill, as Prime Minister in the Coalition Government, said: "... You must rank me and my colleagues as strong partisans of *national compulsory insurance for all classes, for all purposes, from the cradle to the grave*," and in the King's Speech opening the first session of the new Parliament (15th August 1945) it was stated: "... You will be asked to approve measures to provide a comprehensive scheme of insurance against industrial injuries ... to extend the existing scheme of social insurance (and to establish a national health service").

When the unification is complete the resulting scheme will supersede the existing legislation under the categories of Workmen's Compensation, National Health Insurance, Employment Assistance, and Old Age Pensions. The Assistance Board will remain, for all who prove a need, including those special cases in which insurance benefits may not be sufficient. The Lord Chancellor, Lord Jowitt, said on 26th June 1946: "Finally, we must introduce a scheme which is to be administered by a central department of national assistance. ... Therefore the Assistance Board—with all it stands for and has stood for—will be behind this scheme and will be there still functioning. ..."

A unified scheme of this magnitude must come into operation by stages. It is hoped that it will be in full operation by 1948, and it is proposed to bring the retirement pension provisions of the *National Insurance Act* (see below) into effect in October 1946. In the meantime, existing legislation will hold good until the larger scheme "takes over."

(a) NATIONAL INSURANCE ACT, 1946

The *National Insurance Act*, 1946, presented as the National Insurance Bill on 24th January, is part of the vast comprehensive programme of national insurance which includes the *Family Allowances Act*, 1945, and the *National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act*, 1946, presented as a Bill on the 10th October 1945. In moving the Second Reading of the Bill in the House of Lords, the Lord Chancellor,

Lord Jowitt, said : " . . . Mr. Joseph Chamberlain perhaps started the work with his original Workmen's Compensation Act. There followed Mr. Asquith with the Old Age Pensions Act ; Mr. Lloyd George with his great National Insurance Act of 1911 ; Mr. Neville Chamberlain with his Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Contributory Pensions Act of 1925. Then came the Unemployment Insurance Act of 1934 which first set up the Assistance Board. . . . Mr. Arthur Greenwood, then Minister without Portfolio in the Coalition Government . . . appointed Sir William Beveridge to start work which led to his great Report published . . . in November 1942. . . . The Coalition . . . finally produced the White Paper of September 1944. A month or so later the Ministry of National Insurance was established, and I became the first Minister of National Insurance. . . . I concentrated at once on the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Bill. . . . The (new) Minister (Mr. James Griffiths) was able to introduce the National Insurance Bill. . . . in January of this year. . . ."

The Act provides for a unified and comprehensive scheme of National Insurance, which will eventually cover practically everyone in Great Britain. It provides, broadly speaking, that there shall be *three classes* of insured persons :

- (a) *Employed Persons*, i.e., those who work under a contract of service ;
- (b) *Self-employed Persons*, i.e., those who are gainfully occupied, but not under contract of service ; and
- (c) *Non-employed Persons*, those who are not gainfully occupied.

All three classes will contribute for the following kinds of benefits :

Maternity Benefits
Widows' Benefits
Guardians' Allowance (for orphans)
Retirement Pension
Death Grant.

In addition employed persons can qualify for sickness and unemployment benefit and self-employed persons for sickness benefit.

Contribution rates will depend on the class into which the insured person falls. Employers will contribute, so will the Exchequer. The principle "*one card, one stamp, all benefits*" is put into practice.

Main Contribution Rates

		<i>Employed Person</i>	<i>Employer of Employed Persons</i>	<i>Self- employed Person</i>	<i>Non-employed Person</i>
Men over 18	4s. 7d.	3s. 10d.	6s. 2d.	4s. 8d.
Women over 18	3s. 7d.	3s. 0d.	5s. 1d.	3s. 8d.
Boys under 18	2s. 8d.	2s. 3d.	3s. 7d.	2s. 9d.
Girls under 18	2s. 2d.	1s. 9d.	3s. 1d.	2s. 3d.

These rates exclude contributions under the industrial injuries insurance but include contributions to the new health service. Men aged 70 and over and women aged 65 and over will pay no contributions. Men aged 65 to 70 and women aged 60 to 65 will pay contributions only if they are working and have not retired from regular employment. Exceptions from liability to contribute are also provided for the unemployed, the sick, for those still in full-time education and for persons with total incomes under £104 a year.

Benefits

Sickness and Unemployment

Men or single women over 18	..	26s. per week
Married woman over 18	..	20s. unemployment, 16s. sickness, 26s. if separated from her husband and unable to obtain financial help from him.

During the same spell of absence from work *sickness* benefit, broadly, will be without limitation of period if 156 contributions have been paid and unemployment benefit will last 180 days, with additions assessed on record.

Maternity. Grant of £4 for all women, and maternity allowance of 36s. a week for 13 weeks (starting about six weeks before expected confinement) for women normally following a gainful occupation and *attendance allowance*—£1 a week for four weeks—for other women.

Widows. Widow's allowance of 36s. a week for first 13 weeks of widowhood, and then, if there is a child, a widowed mother's allowance of 33s. 6d., i.e., 26s. for the mother and 7s. 6d. for the child ; or, if she has reached the age of 50, a widow's pension of 26s. a week. In addition, a widow's pension is paid to a widow who has reached the age of 40 when her widowed mother's allowance ceases, and to a widow who is incapable of self-support.

Guardian's Allowance. This is 12s. a week, for a person who has in his family a child whose parents are dead.

Retirement Pensions. The rates are 26s. for a single person and 42s. for a married couple. They replace the existing contributory old age pension, but will be payable only on retirement from regular work. For this purpose all men aged 70 and over and all women aged 65 and over will be treated as having retired. Men who work after the age of 65 and women who work after the age of 60 will have their pensions increased by 2s. a week for every year they work after the pension age.

Death Grant is paid for expenses connected with the death of an insured person or his wife, child or widow. The grant, with certain exceptions, will be

Adult	£20
Child aged 6—17	£15
„ „ 3—5	£10
„ under 3	£6

Administration. There will be a network of regional and local offices throughout the country, working, so far as unemployment benefit is concerned, in close co-operation with the employment exchanges. For sickness benefit, it is proposed that payment should be made by post or in the home of the sick person. When local offices are fully established, they will be centres where all concerned can go freely for advice and help.

Finance. The expenditure on insurance benefits in 1948 is expected to be about £450,000,000.

The Bill received the Royal Assent on 1st August 1946.

Northern Ireland. In pursuance of a policy of parity in social services, a Bill corresponding to the comprehensive legislation noted above will shortly come before the Northern Ireland Parliament.

(b) FAMILY ALLOWANCES ACT, 1945

A Bill to provide Family Allowances was presented to Parliament on 15th February 1945, and received the Royal Assent on 15th June 1945. Its object

was to provide for the payment by the Minister of National Insurance from the Exchequer of an allowance for each family at the rate of 5s. for each eligible child except the first or only child, and so to benefit the family as a whole. (A child, for this purpose, is defined as one who is under the upper limit of the compulsory school age or one over that age who is undergoing full-time instruction in school, or is an apprentice, until the 31st July after his 16th birthday.)

Example. "... Thus, if there are four children in a family aged 17, 13, 11 and 9, no account will be taken of the child aged 17, and there remain, therefore, *three* qualified children, for whom *two* allowances will be payable. When the child aged 13 leaves school, or after the 31st July following his 16th birthday (if he is then at school) the number of qualified children will be reduced to two, and only one allowance will be payable."

If the breadwinner is on benefit, i.e., out of work or sick, then under the new National Insurance scheme provision will be made for the first child. Further assistance will come in the development of school meals and milk services. Over 2,500,000 families with approximately 7,000,000 children are eligible for the allowances and these are therefore payable for 4,500,000 children. The cost of the cash allowances is roughly £57 million a year and that of administration about £2 million. In the case of a married couple living together the allowance belongs to the mother, but either the father or the mother may draw it at the post office. Reciprocal arrangements have been made with Northern Ireland and the Isle of Man.

Payment. Payment of family allowances began on 6th August 1946. Allowances are claimed by completing and sending in to the Ministry of National Insurance a special claim form obtainable at any post office. When awarded, allowances are paid at post offices by means of books containing weekly orders; each order remains valid for a period of six months. All families living in Great Britain, whatever the nationality of the parents, may qualify for allowances, but British subjects who were born abroad and aliens are required to satisfy certain residence conditions. In all cases either the husband or the wife must be living in Great Britain. Members of the Forces and Merchant Seamen will, during their service, always be treated as though they were living in Great Britain.

Northern Ireland. A Bill making provision for family allowances received the Royal Assent, and in August 1946 payments began in Ulster simultaneously with those in Great Britain. One hundred thousand families are eligible for benefit and the number of children concerned is 210,000. The annual cost is about £3 million.

(c) NATIONAL INSURANCE (INDUSTRIAL INJURIES) ACT, 1946

This Bill "to substitute for the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1925 to 1945, a system of insurance against personal injury caused by accidents arising out of and in the course of a person's employment, and for purposes connected therewith" was introduced on 23rd August 1945, and read the second time on 10th October 1945. It received the Royal Assent on 26th July. The measure is broadly based on the White Paper, Social Insurance Part II of 27th September, 1944 (Cmd. 6551) and its main object is to make compensation for industrial injuries a part of the country's social services in a scheme based on insurance against risk and not on liability for compensation. Its chief provisions are that (1) all persons employed in Great Britain under any contract of service or apprenticeship shall be insured without income limit; (2) benefits shall be related to the degree of disablement caused by the industrial accident or disease and not to loss of earning power. The degree

of disablement will be assessed by Medical Boards and expressed as a percentage, the maximum being 100 per cent.

Benefits

Injury Allowance. The basic weekly rate both for injury benefit and for 100 per cent disablement pension is 45s. Injury benefit is payable during incapacity for work for a period of not more than 26 weeks from the date of the accident. Pension is payable from the end of the 26th week if incapacity continues so long, or from the date of recovery, if there is any remaining disablement. Rates of pension for partial disablement will be proportionate to the 100 per cent, e.g., 9s. for 20 per cent, 22s. 6d. for 50 per cent, etc.

Unemployability. When a pensioner remains virtually unemployable, as a result of accident, he will receive a 20s. a week supplement to his pension.

Special Handicap Allowance. Where as a result of his accident a pensioner is unable, and likely to remain unable, to follow his regular occupation, and is also unable to take up suitable alternative work of an equivalent standard, he may be granted a special allowance of 11s. 3d. a week, provided this does not raise his pension above 45s.

Constant Attendance Allowance. A pensioner with a 100 per cent assessment who requires constant attendance as a result of his accident, may be granted a special allowance of up to 20s. a week or, in exceptionally severe cases, 40s. a week.

Treatment in Hospital. If a pensioner has to go into hospital for treatment for his injury, his pension will, if not already at 100 per cent rate, be increased to that rate while the treatment lasts.

Dependants' Allowances. During the period of injury benefit, or when a pensioner is in receipt of an unemployability supplement or is undergoing approved treatment in hospital, the allowance for a wife or other adult dependant is 16s. weekly, and the allowance for a first child, i.e., a child who would not benefit under Family Allowances, is 7s. 6d.

Pensioner who is Sick or Unemployed. A pensioner can get sickness or unemployment benefit in addition to his pension, if he satisfies the normal conditions for receipt of such benefit, but benefit will be at half-rate until he has been unemployed for 13 weeks since the date of his accident.

Children. If employed, children under school-leaving age have a right to disablement pension at half adult rate. Regulations will determine whether they are to get any injury benefit. Neither they nor their employers will pay contributions.

Death Benefit. The rate of pension for a widow is 30s. weekly, if she has a child or children, or if she is over 50 years of age, or if she is permanently incapable of self-support; and in other cases, 20s. weekly. The pension will be raised to 37s. 6d. so long as she has the care of one child of the deceased person. The pension for dependent parents is at the rate of up to 20s. weekly for one parent, or 30s. for two parents living together. In certain circumstances, a dependent relative may receive a pension (maximum 20s.) and a woman having the care of the deceased's child may receive an allowance of 20s. so long as she has the care of the child. A parent or relative not entitled to a pension may qualify for a gratuity not exceeding £52 in some cases, or £104 in others.

Contributions. Weekly contribution rates are:

	Employer	Worker	Total
Man	4d.	4d.	8d.
Woman	3d.	3d.	6d.
Boy under 18	2½d.	2½d.	5d.
Girl under 18	2d.	2d.	4d.

Local Tribunals. Independent local appeal tribunals, consisting of one representative each of employers and workers under an independent chairman, hear appeals

from the insurance officers' decisions. There is a further right of appeal to a commissioner appointed by the Crown, whose decision is final.

Accident Research. There is a provision for financial assistance to be given to persons engaged on research into the causes and prevention of industrial accident and disease and for the Minister of National Insurance to employ persons to carry out research.

Artificial Limbs. Provision is made to supply artificial limbs and other appliances to pensioners either free or at reduced cost.

Administration. The Minister has a small headquarters staff in London, an executive headquarters staff in Newcastle-on-Tyne, and local offices in all important centres throughout the country. There is an *Industrial Injuries Advisory Council* to which members are nominated by representative employers' and workmen's organisations.

Finance. The cost of the benefits is estimated at £28½ million with a further £3½ million for administration.

2. STATUTORY AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE

Throughout Britain's history voluntary pioneering experiment has formed the basis of social service provision. Early voluntary provision has been developed and extended into the wide range of State social services which exists to-day and covers every stage from before birth till after death. Voluntary effort has provided the driving force and voluntary organisation the basis for legislation. The scope of the resulting statutory services is ever widening. In many spheres statutory and voluntary services work in close collaboration. The State has accepted the responsibility for prescribing and maintaining national minimum standards of education, health, housing, income maintenance and social welfare. In all these fields voluntary effort supplements State provision; for example, the welfare work of the Assistance Board is supplemented by the work of many voluntary social service societies with whose workers the Board's officers co-operate, while State institutional provision for the chronic sick and aged is supplemented by voluntary homes for the care of sick and elderly receiving State pensions or benefit. In fulfilling the aim of providing for all, the State services often make use of those voluntary agencies specially adapted to serve the needs of each.

The relation of the government to voluntary agencies varies in form and extent from one sphere of social service to another, partly on account of differences in the type of service involved, often for historical reasons. The most formal type of relation is the regulation of the work of private agencies to prevent abuse, for example the registration of charities collecting from the public. Voluntary agencies which have proved that they are doing useful work that receives the general approval of the majority of taxpayers enjoy official support and State aid in a number of spheres. Examples are found in voluntary maternity and child welfare centres (see above under HEALTH), and under the *Physical Training and Recreation Act, 1937*, and the *Education Act, 1944*, that empower the Ministry of Education to make grants to voluntary organisations promoting physical training and recreation.

In some fields the State exercises an important function in co-ordinating the work of voluntary agencies, as in the Youth Service (see below).

Personnel in Social Service : Trained social workers are widely employed by central and local government departments. Such workers include children's care

workers, hospital almoners, psychiatric social workers, women housing managers, personnel managers and probation officers.

The *British Federation of Social Workers*, with 16 member associations and nearly 11,000 members, is representative of professional social workers in a number of fields and in both State and voluntary services. Many citizens give free part- or full-time service, in varying proportion to professional workers, in all spheres of social service, both statutory and voluntary.

3. VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICES

[Note : This section cannot attempt to be more than indicative of the field covered by voluntary social services in Britain.]

"The growth of the public social services has not restricted the field of voluntary effort, but has rather stimulated the impulse towards independent effort to such an extent that many public services are now surrounded with a dense suburban area of semi-public and voluntary services."*

(a) **Voluntary Social Service Organisations.** The number of charitable societies and institutions in Britain is very large. Over 2,700, varying from national to local in scope and from general to highly specialised in purpose, are noted in the Annual Register of Charities.

Co-ordination between societies working in the same field is, however, increasingly common. The major societies caring for homeless children, for example, are represented on the National Council of Associated Children's Homes, while some twenty societies concerned with maternity and child welfare are co-ordinated by the National Council for Maternity and Child Welfare. There is, again, the Central Council for the Care of Cripples. Moral welfare work is undertaken mainly by the Churches, working through denominational organisations.

National co-ordinating societies with general social service aims are the National Council of Social Service and the Family Welfare Association.

The *National Council of Social Service*, started with government support as a result of the 1914-18 war, has as its main purpose the promotion of active partnership between the machinery of government and the voluntary activities of the community. It co-ordinates the activities of a large number of local councils of social service and it brings together national organisations concerned with special aspects of social welfare or community activity—as, for example, on the National Old People's Welfare Committee, an autonomous group of the Council, and on the Standing Conference of National Juvenile Organisations.

The Council does much to foster social life and cultural activity both in rural and urban areas. It provides a central office for village halls and community centres, and from time to time undertakes the formation and organisation of special services, e.g., it established the Citizens' Advice Bureaux Service at the outbreak of war.

The *Family Welfare Association* (formerly Charity Organisation Society) is the foremost society whose main concern is constructive personal welfare work for any individual or family in any kind of need. The Family Welfare Association is a national organisation working through District Committees in the London area. It has affiliated to it a large number of family case work agencies working on similar lines in the provinces.

* T. S. Simey, "Principles of Social Administration." O.U.P. 1937.

(b) *War-time Social Services in peace time.* The social upheaval caused by the war created new social services, State and voluntary, and directed the efforts of existing agencies into new channels. A number of hostels founded to house displaced elderly people continue to contribute to the solution of a problem that is growing with the changing composition of the population. The Youth Service, widely developed by co-operative State and voluntary effort in response to war-time needs, continues to give wider leisure opportunities to boys and girls.

Three voluntary organisations prominent in war-time welfare work that are finding wide scope for similar service in peace time are the British Red Cross Society, the Citizens' Advice Bureaux and the Women's Voluntary Services.

- (i) *The British Red Cross Society:* The welfare work undertaken during the war (by the Red Cross and St. John Organisation) did not end with hostilities, and plans have been made for a considerable expansion of these services. The after-care of ex-service men and women invalided from the Forces, the organisation of extensive library services, the distribution of diversional handicrafts to long-term patients in hospitals or sanatoria and the provision of financial and material aid for war pensioners during periods of special emergency, are examples of some of the activities undertaken on behalf of victims of the war. The British Red Cross Society—which is implementing its peace-time programme—is, however, not limited in this service to war casualties, but is empowered by its Charter to assist the civilian population also in any way calculated to promote health, prevent disease or mitigate suffering. The Society has accordingly set up a special department of Welfare Services with the primary purpose of supplementing the work already done by voluntary and statutory bodies. The three main directions of activity will be towards the welfare of civilian disabled, of invalid and crippled children and of aged infirm.
- (ii) *Citizens' Advice Bureaux:* Started as a war-time service, between 700 and 800 bureaux in Great Britain continue to advise and help all inquirers. The staff, most of whom are unpaid volunteers, act as interpreters between government departments and citizens. While inquiries are slightly fewer than in war time many need more time and skill for their solution. Most are concerned with post-war home-making problems, many with national insurance. Local authorities and voluntary funds share the cost of most of the bureaux.
- (iii) *Women's Voluntary Services:* Promoted in 1938 by the Home Secretary, Women's Voluntary Services (formerly for Civil Defence), with some million members giving full- or part-time service, "applied the principles of good housekeeping to the job of helping run their country in its hour of need." In September 1945 the Government decided that there would be many tasks for its services in the post-war transition period.

Local Centres direct their services according to local needs. Some forms of help now being given are in connection with hostels and clubs for old people, helping mothers in the care of children, "make-do-and-mend" parties, allocation and distribution of gifts from overseas and of welfare foods, food advice centres, ration book issues, helping with school meals, children's clothing exchanges, hospital car service, helping with housing surveys, and National Savings collections, besides continued Forces welfare work. Millions of seeds and plants have been collected in country districts and distributed in London to create gardens round temporary houses.

Members give their services without payment, but expenditure on activities authorised by Government Departments is borne by the Exchequer.

XX. YOUTH

Under the *Education Act*, 1944, many young people will be able to take advantage of the opportunities which have not been theirs in the past. Voluntary evening and week-end activities will be encouraged at the County Colleges, and the profitable use of leisure stimulated. The curriculum will include English, science and citizenship, and physical education. The colleges will be primarily for compulsory part-time education, voluntary evening classes will be held in them and they may house Youth Centres. The premises will include a gymnasium, an assembly hall with stage and provision for films, a library, students' common room, etc., and all classrooms will be wired for broadcasting and visual aids.

From the autumn of 1946 any girl or boy who wins an open or State scholarship, or its equivalent, will receive supplementary financial help towards the cost of tuition and maintenance so that full advantage may be taken of the university course.

With their employers' full permission they will be able to take full-time courses at Universities and Technical Colleges.

For those interested in technical education there are part-time Day and Evening Craft Courses.

Then there is the Youth Service, which provides for adequate swimming baths, playgrounds, gymnasiums and public open spaces.

The Scottish Youth Leadership Training Association is training young men and women to be full-time workers in the field of youth service and in various forms of educational and recreative work.

Boys and girls have played a very active part indeed in helping with fruit picking and farming, etc. In 1945, 44,572 boys and girls helped with the harvest.

PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

Boys

The three pre-service training organisations for boys are recognised by the Service Departments, who maintain close liaison with central education authorities. For 1945 membership figures for the Sea Cadets were approximately 36,000, for the Air Training Corps 70,870, and for the Army Cadets 151,404. An Inter-Services Cadet Committee is responsible for all matters of common interest, and for co-operation between the three Cadet Corps.

Air Training Corps.—Since the Corps was started in 1941 nearly 4,000 A.T.C. Cadets have been awarded special six-month short courses at 10 different universities in England and Scotland.

New developments in the peace-time training programme of the A.T.C., announced by the Air Ministry on 30th September 1945, include the introduction of two-seater gliders for Cadet training and the provision of living accommodation at gliding schools. In this way a larger proportion of Cadets will learn the elements of gliding, which is being increasingly recognised as a valuable basic training for power flying as well as one of the most popular features of A.T.C. activities.

Army Cadet Force.—The training and organisation of the Army Cadet Force are modelled not merely upon military requirements but upon the social and recreational development of boys during the period of years before they are called upon to

enter one of the adult Services. Its club and recreational activities represent a social rather than a military feature, a fact which is recognised by the grants which cadet units may receive from the Ministry of Education for these purposes. It is the intention of the Army Council to blend the military and social activities of the corps in such a way as to provide a general introduction to military training while at the same time meeting the demands of youth training in its wider sense.

Sea Cadets.—The function of the Sea Cadet Corps is to give technical training to, and instil naval tradition in, boys who intend to serve in the Royal and Merchant Navies, and also those sea-minded boys who do not intend to follow a sea career but will, given this knowledge, form a valuable reserve for the Royal Navy.

Girls.—The National Association of Training Corps for Girls provides a general training for service, primarily for girls of 14–18 years of age. It maintains a close relationship with the Scottish Girls' Training Corps, the Welsh Association of Training Corps for Girls, and the Northern Ireland Association of Training Corps for Girls. The total cadet strength is over 158,000.

Enrolment is voluntary and, in common with all voluntary youth organisations, each unit is responsible for raising its own funds. The Association plans to help new, struggling units, to provide bursaries for camping and training courses, to expand facilities for specialised training in aviation and nautical affairs, to establish a training centre and permanent camps throughout the country; and to extend the scheme of exchange visits between cadets here and those overseas, for the importance of international understanding is very strongly stressed. The cadets have "adopted" countries, giving hospitality and welcome to students and children who have suffered under the Nazi regime, and by going overseas themselves, are making their contribution to the friendship and goodwill between all nations. They are learning to plan and run homes efficiently, the wisdom of mothercraft, and the technique of personal health, etc.

OTHER ORGANISATIONS

Voluntary organisations include the following 15 nation-wide organisations, which are associated together as members of the Standing Conference of National Juvenile Organisations:

The National Association of Boys' Clubs; the National Association of Girls' Clubs and Mixed Clubs; Y.M.C.A.; Y.W.C.A.; Boy Scouts' Association; Girl Guides' Association; National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs; Welsh League of Youth; Boys' Brigade; Church Lads' Brigade; Girls' Friendly Society; Girls' Guildry; Girls' Life Brigade; Co-operative Youth Movement; St. John Ambulance Brigade Cadets.

APPENDIX 1

HIS MAJESTY'S GOVERNMENT

October 1946

CABINET

Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury and Minister of Defence
Rt. Hon. CLEMENT RICHARD ATTLEE, C.H., M.P.

Lord President of the Council and Leader of the House of Commons
Rt. Hon. HERBERT STANLEY MORRISON, M.P.

Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs
Rt. Hon. ERNEST BEVIN, M.P.

Lord Privy Seal
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Rt. Hon. JAMES CHUTER EDE, M.P.

Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs and Leader of the House of Lords
Rt. Hon. Viscount ADDISON.

Secretary of State for India and Burma
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Secretary of State for the Colonies
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Rt. Hon. JOSEPH WESTWOOD, M.P.

Minister of Labour and National Service
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Minister of Fuel and Power
Rt. Hon. EMANUEL SHINWELL, M.P.

Minister of Education
Rt. Hon. ELLEN CECILY WILKINSON, M.P.

Minister of Health
Rt. Hon. ANEURIN BEVAN, M.P.

Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries
Rt. Hon. THOMAS WILLIAMS, M.P.

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Air : Secretary of State—Rt. Hon. PHILIP JOHN NOEL-BAKER, M.P.

Civil Aviation : Minister—Rt. Hon. Lord NATHAN, T.D.

Duchy of Lancaster : Chancellor—JOHN BURNS HYND, Esq., M.P.

Food : Minister—Rt. Hon. JOHN STRACHEY, M.P.

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REID THOMSON, K.C., M.P.

Minister of State : Rt. Hon. HECTOR McNEIL, M.P.

National Insurance : Minister—Rt. Hon. JAMES GRIFFITHS, M.P.

Paymaster-General : Vacant

Pensions : Minister—Rt. Hon. WILFRED PALING, M.P.

Post Office : Postmaster-General—Rt. Hon. the Earl of LISTOWEL.

Supply : Minister—Rt. Hon. JOHN WILMOT, M.P.

Town and Country Planning : Minister—Rt. Hon. LEWIS SILKIN, M.P.

Transport : Minister—Rt. Hon. ALFRED BARNES, M.P.

War : Secretary of State—Rt. Hon. FREDERICK JOHN BELLENGER, M.P.

Works : Minister—Rt. Hon. GEORGE TOMLINSON, M.P.

APPENDIX 2

ADDRESSES OF ORGANISATIONS MENTIONED IN TEXT

- Aylesbury After-care Association, Bierton Hall, Aylesbury, Bucks.
Boy Scouts Association, 25 Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
British Employers' Confederation, 21 Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.
British European Airways Corporation, 16 Upper Grosvenor Street, London, S.W.1.
British Export Trade Research Organisation, Premier House, Dover Street, London, W.1.
British Federation of Social Workers, 5 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
British Film Institute, 4 Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.
British Overseas Airways Corporation, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
British Red Cross Society, 6 Cadogan Square, London, S.W.1.
British South American Airways Corporation, 16 Grafton Street, London, W.1.
Camping Club of Great Britain and Ireland, 38 Grosvenor Gardens, London, S.W.1.
Central Association for the Aid of Discharged Convicts, 66 Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
Central Council for the Care of Cripples, 34 Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
Central Council of Physical Recreation, 58 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
Co-operative Holidays Association, Albert Court, London, S.W.7.
Co-operative Wholesale Society, 99 Leman Street, London, E.1.
Cyclists' Touring Club, 3 Craven Hill, London, W.2.
Disabled Persons' Employment Corporation, 25 Buckingham Street, London, S.W.1.
Fabian Society, 11 Dartmouth Street, London, S.W.1.
Family Welfare Association, 296 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.1.
Federation of British Industries, 21 Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.
Girl Guides Association, 17 Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
Holiday Fellowship Ltd., 142 Great North Way, London, N.W.4.
Miners' Welfare Commission, Ashley Court, Ashted, Surrey.
National Association of Discharged Prisoners Aid Societies, 66 Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
National Association of Local Government Officers, 24 Abingdon Street, London, S.W.1.
National Association of Training Corps for Girls, 46 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
National Council of Associated Children's Homes, Highbury Park, London, N.5.
National Council for Maternity and Child Welfare, 48 Queen's Gardens, London, W.2.
National Council of Social Service, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
National Cyclists' Union, 35 Doughty Street, London, W.C.1.
Standing Conference of National Juvenile Organisations, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
Trades Union Congress, Transport House, Smith Square, London, S.W.1.
Women's Voluntary Services, 51 Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.
Workers' Travel Association, 49 Cannon Street, London, E.C.4.
Young Men's Christian Association, Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.
Young Women's Christian Association, Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.
Youth Hostels Association, Midland Bank Chambers, Howardsgate, Welwyn Garden City, Herts.

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Cmd. 6567 H.M.S.O. Nov. 44 4d.
- Proposals for the Reform of the Foreign Service
Cmd. 6420 H.M.S.O. Jan. 43 2d.
- Administrative Class of the Civil Service
Cmd. 6680 H.M.S.O. Sept. 45 1d.
- Scientific Civil Service
Cmd. 5679 H.M.S.O. Sept. 45 3d.
- Superannuation Act, 1946
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- Local Government in England and Wales
Cmd. 6579 H.M.S.O. Jan. 45 4d.
- Outlines of Local Government in the United Kingdom (15th edition),
 J. J. Clarke *Pitman 1946 10/-*
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- Local Elections in Great Britain
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Cmd. 6579 H.M.S.O. Jan. 45 4d.
- Prisons and Borstals
H.M.S.O. June 45 1/-
- Report of the Commissioners of Prisons and Directors of
 Convict Prisons for the year 1938
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II

- The B.B.C. Year Book *The Hollen Press 1946 2/6*

III

- A College of Aeronautics
H.M.S.O. July 44 2/-
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IV

- Strength and Casualties of Armed Forces and Auxiliary Services
 of U.K. 1939-45
Cmd. 6832 H.M.S.O. June 46 2d.
- Statement relating to Defence
Cmd. 6743 H.M.S.O. Feb. 46 2d.
- Post-war Code of Pay, Allowances, etc., for O.R. Members of Forces
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- The Call-up to the Forces
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V

- Education Act, 1944 *H.M.S.O. Aug. 44 2/-*

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Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools (Norwood Report)	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>July</i>	43	1/6
Teachers and Youth Leaders (McNair Report)	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>May</i>	44	2/-
The Public Schools (Fleming Report)	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>July</i>	44	2/-
Education (Scotland) Act, 1945	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Mar.</i>	45	1/3
A Guide to the Educational System of England and Wales	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Aug.</i>	45	1/-
Needs of Youth in These Times	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	45	1/6
Building Crafts	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	45	1/-
Youth's Opportunity	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	45	1/-
Higher Technological Education (Percy Report)	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	45	6d.
Juvenile Employment Service (Ince Report)	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	45	1/-
Education Act, 1946	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>May</i>	46	6d.
Training of Teachers, Scotland	<i>Cmd. 6723</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Jan.</i>	46 1/6
Technical Education	<i>Cmd. 6786</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>April</i>	46 2/-
Higher Agricultural Education in England and Wales	<i>Cmd. 6728</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Feb.</i>	46 1/3
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Release and Resettlement. Ministry of Labour and National Service	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		1945	3d.
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Factory Inspection in Great Britain. T. K. Djang, B.Sc., Ph.D. (London)	<i>Allen and Unwin</i>		1942	12/6
Health Services in Industry. Industrial Welfare Society			1942	1/-
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Annual Report of Chief Inspector of Factories	<i>Cmd. 6992</i>	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1946	2/-
Industrial Health and Welfare in Britain.	<i>Ref. Document R. 1088</i>		<i>June</i>	46

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Supplementary Financial Statement (October 1945)	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		1945	3d.
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It Can Now Be Revealed	<i>British Railways Press Office</i>	1945	1/-
History of the British Railways during the War	<i>The Railway Gazette</i>	1946	25/-
London Passenger Transport Board Twelfth Annual Report and Accounts	<i>L.P.T.B.</i>	1945	1/-

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Report of the Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population	<i>Cmd. 6153 H.M.S.O.</i>	Jan. 40	5/-
Report of the Committee on Land Utilisation in Rural Areas	<i>Cmd. 6378 H.M.S.O.</i>	Aug. 42	2/-
Final Report of the Expert Committee on Compensation and Betterment	<i>Cmd. 6386 H.M.S.O.</i>	Sept. 42	2/6
Employment Policy	<i>Cmd. 6527 H.M.S.O.</i>	1944	6d.
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Town and Country Planning in Britain	<i>Ref. Document R. 1062</i>	May 46	

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The Population of Great Britain	M. Abrams	<i>Allen and Unwin and London Press Exchange</i>	1945	3/6
Population Facts and Policies	E. M. Hubback	<i>Allen and Unwin</i>	1945	2/6
Births, Deaths and Marriages ; Quarterly Returns of the Registrar-General :				
England and Wales		<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		6d.
Scotland		<i>H.M.S.O.</i>		6d.
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Part II 1941		<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1946	1/6
Scotland 1942		<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1945	4/-

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Kinematograph Year Book	<i>Kinematograph Publications</i>	July 46	20/-
Report of the Committee on the Functions of the National Gallery and Tate Gallery	<i>Cmd. 6827 H.M.S.O.</i>	May 46	6d.
Seventh Report of the Royal Fine Art Commission, 1937-45	<i>Cmd. 6819 H.M.S.O.</i>	June 46	4d.
National Parks in England and Wales	<i>Cmd. 6628 H.M.S.O.</i>	May 45	1/-
The Arts during the War. Women in Council	<i>National Council of Women</i>	June 46	3d.
British Libraries (British Life and Thought Series) McColvin and Revie	<i>Longmans Green</i>	1946	1/-
The National Trust : A Record of Fifty Years' Achievement	J. Lees-Milne	<i>Batsford</i>	1945 12/6
Holiday-making and the Holiday Trades	E. Brunner	<i>O.U.P.</i>	1945 2/6
Holidays	National Council of Social Service	<i>Milford</i>	1945 3/6
Community Centres	<i>H.M.S.O.</i>	1944	9d.

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British Social Services (British Life and Thought Series)			
A. D. K. Owen	<i>Longmans Green</i>	1945	1/-
Voluntary Social Services, their place in the modern State			
A. F. C. Bourdillon	<i>Methuen</i>	1945	16/-
Annual Register of Charities and Public Institutions	<i>Longmans</i>	1946	10/6

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Development of British Social Services	<i>Ref. Document R.697</i>	<i>April 45</i>	
Annual Report of the Assistance Board	<i>Cmd. 6883 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Aug. 46</i>	<i>9d.</i>
Social Insurance, Part I	<i>Cmd. 6550 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Sept. 44</i>	<i>6d.</i>
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National Insurance Bill, 1946, Summary of Main Provisions	<i>Cmd. 6729 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>Jan. 46</i>	<i>2d.</i>
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Increases in Old Age, Widows' and Blind Persons' Pensions	<i>Cmd. 6878 H.M.S.O.</i>	<i>July 46</i>	<i>2d.</i>
National Insurance in Britain	<i>Ref. Document R.1117</i>	<i>Aug. 46</i>	

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